Persian Grammar

For reference and revision

John Mace

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#### Persian Grammar

This is a book for reference and revision, aimed at those in the early stages of studying the Persian language. It uses the official reformed spelling, and covers handwriting, educated standard and educated colloquial pronunciation, as well as the important polite forms. The grammar is explained with numerous examples that are given in both Persian script and Roman transcription. Grammatical themes are grouped logically, and there are cross-references, appendices and a subject index to facilitate the search for the right form.

John Mace has worked in the Diplomatic Service, as a British Council lecturer in Iran, as a personnel officer in the Middle East and as a European Commission Delegate. He has written Persian, Arabic and German language manuals, and a verse translation of Russian poetry.

## PERSIAN GRAMMAR

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## Introduction

This is a revision and reference grammar book whose purpose is to act as support for any course of Persian, and especially to help students in their early and intermediate stages.

It is not a course book. Each paragraph makes as few assumptions as possible about previous knowledge of the theme being studied. The book does not claim to examine every point in the language, merely to cover the most practical ones.

Maximum advantage has been taken of the fact that Persian has an Indo-European grammatical structure, familiar to most Europeans.

Although the book follows modern spelling, it indicates also those older forms of spelling still found today.

The transcription accompanying the Persian script is an accurate reflection of the pronunciation. Educated colloquial variants of the standard pronunciation are shown and explained; this colloquial pronunciation is socially completely 'correct', and you are recommended to use it whenever you are not reading aloud or quoting from a written text. Standard pronunciation is always acceptable; but without a knowledge of colloquial pronunciation you will miss much of what is said to you; and your own spoken Persian will never 'take off' without at least some use of it. Colloquial forms are shown in angular quotation marks : in the transcription.

Grammar books sometimes separate much information into morphology (word structure) and syntax (sentence structure). Many students find this distinction unnecessary. In this book, points of syntax are, as far as possible, studied together with the appropriate parts of speech. The syntax chapter examines only those points which cannot be so studied.

Reference numbers in the text relate to chapter number/

#### Introduction

paragraph number. Roman numbers refer to the appendices.

The index supplements the references quoted in the chapters and appendices, and should, like them, be fully used in the search for the right structure.

I take this opportunity to express my thanks to Goly Foroughi, Sharare Atabaki Nosratifard and Mahmoud Khanchezzar for their help in checking the examples, to Jeannine and Paul Tys for permission to include their photographs, and to Marilyn Moore for her help in proof-reading. Any remaining shortcomings are my responsibility.

## 1. Writing

#### 1. General

In other chapters of this book each paragraph is discrete; in other words, as far as possible it does not assume that the student has studied any other paragraphs.

This chapter, on the other hand, is of necessity continuous; that is, each paragraph assumes knowledge of all previous paragraphs in the chapter.

Paragraphs 1/3 to 25 below give the printed forms of the alphabetical letters and other signs. Many forms look different when handwritten; 1/26 and 27 below show handwritten forms.

The writing of the numerals is examined in 9/1.

Chapter 2 shows the pronunciation of the letters and their transcription used in this book.

#### 2. Alphabet and spelling

Persian is written with a modified Arabic alphabet. The general principles of this alphabet are:

- The writing runs from right to left ← .
- There are no capital letters.
- Short vowels (there are three, which we transcribe as a, o, e)
  are mostly not written, but inferred from the outline and
  context. There is a means of marking these vowels but it is
  hardly ever seen outside school textbooks.
- Most letters are joined to the letter following them in the same word, i.e. to the left. These are joined letters. Almost all of these have a short form when joined to the following letter, and a full form when not so joined.
- A few letters, called disjoined letters, are never joined to the following letter. They have only one form.

This book uses the modern reformed spelling. Some older spellings

are, however, still encountered, and these are also shown where appropriate.

3.

The first and commonest letter of the alphabet is called *alef*. It is a *disjoined* letter, never joined to the letter following it. It is pronounced as follows:

- at the beginning of a word, it shows the presence of one of the short vowels *a*, *o*, *e* (which are not themselves written)
- in the middle or at the end of a word, it represents the long vowel ā.

 $\tilde{1}$  alef madde

This variant of 1 alef is written at the beginning of a word to represent the long vowel  $\bar{a}$ .

be پ پ pe ت ت te ث ث se\*

These four letters called be, pe, te and se all look alike except for the dot(s) above or below them. They are of course written leftwards  $\leftarrow$ . They are pronounced respectively b, p, t and s. They are all joined letters, i.e. joined to the next letter in the word.

Each one has a short form used at the beginning or in the middle of a word, and a full form used at the end of a word or when standing alone.

Combined with  $\int alef$  or  $\int alef$  madde (1/3 and 4 above) they appear as follows:

$$ar{a}b$$
 water (alef and alef madde are not joined to the next letter, in this case  $m{\psi}$  be)

 $m{b}ar{a}$  with  $m{b}ar{a}$  foot  $m{b}ar{a}$  foot  $m{b}ar{a}$  until  $m{b}ar{a}$  to the alef following them)

 $m{b}ar{a}m{b}$  chapter (of a book)

\* • se occurs only in a very few words, of Arabic origin. The commonest letter for s is shown in 1/12 below.

The letters of the  $\psi$  be group are called 'toothed' letters; their short form without its dot(s) is  $\omega$ , called a 'tooth'. There are other toothed letters, studied below.

The letter nun represents the sound n. This is a joined letter, and has two forms: a short form used at the beginning or in the middle of a word, and a full form used at the end of a word or when standing alone. The short form is a tooth (see 1/5 above); the long form is deeper.

The letter ye is a joined letter, with a toothed short form used as are those of the  $\checkmark$  be group (1/5 above). The long form, used at the end of a word or when the letter stands alone, has no dots. It swoops below the line of print. ye has the following pronunciation:

- at the beginning of a word: the consonant y
- in the middle of a word: the consonant y, or the long vowel
   i, or (less often) the vowel-combination ei

- at the end of a word:
  - after a consonant, the long vowel i, or (less often) the vowel-combination ei; also, at the end of a very few words taken from Arabic,  $\bar{a}$  (an example of which is given in 1/21 below)
  - after a vowel, the syllable -ye; very rarely, i.

yā or بين bi without بين bein between پايان pāyān end نايب biābān desert بيابان

> پایین pāin low, down پایین biāi you may come آیین āin custom

See also 1/8, 21 and 24 below.

In a few words this combination is written with one ye: see 1/13.

It is a rule that no vowel other than long  $\bar{a}$  can begin a word in writing. Where a vowel other than  $\bar{a}$  is the first sound, it must be introduced. The commonest letter for introducing a vowel is |alef|:

in this این

8. vāv

The letter  $v\bar{a}v$  is a disjoined letter with only one form, extending below the line of print.  $v\bar{a}v$  is pronounced:

- at the beginning of a word: ν
- in the middle or at the end of a word: v, or the long vowel u,
  or (less often) the vowel-combination ou. At the end of a
  very few words (all of which are important) it represents
  the short vowel o
- in a few important words it is silent; see 1/13 below.

va, o\* and ايوان eivān porch

The combination -ui is written ...., the first of the two letters ye being silent:

See also 1/7, 21 and 24.

The rule given in 1/7 above concerning initial vowels applies here also:

The word  $\underline{\bullet}$  pronounced o 'and', marked \* above, is an exception to this rule.

The letter mim is a joined letter. It represents m. Its short and full forms are used in the manner described in 1/5 above. The full form has a tail reaching straight down below the line of print.

An initial 'tooth' (see 1/5 above) preceding *mim* is often inverted and raised. Initial *mim* is often also raised when followed by another *mim*:

The disjoined letters called  $d\bar{a}l$  and  $z\bar{a}l$  have only one form each, identical but for the dot. These letters rest on the line of print.

They are sounded respectively d and z.  $\dot{s}$  is not the commonest letter for the sound z; that is shown in the next paragraph.

دندان dānāi wisdom دندان dandān tooth دندان davidan to run مى غاييد mi namāid you show آمد mi dānad he/she knows آمد amad he/she came مى آيد namudand they showed غودند

11.

re ; ze ; že

The disjoined letters re (sounded r), ze (sounded z) and ze (sounded z, see 2/3), are identical but for their dots. They each have one form only, which curves down slightly below the line of print.

At first sight this group may seem to be similar to the  $3 \, d\bar{a}l$  group. There is in fact no confusion; re and ze are joined to the previous letter at the head, and they strike immediately downwards, while  $d\bar{a}l$  and  $z\bar{a}l$  are joined to the previous letter at the angle, and the whole letter remains on the line of writing.

ze is the commonest letter (out of three possible) used for the sound z. The letter ze and its sound ze are very rare.

ارد dārad he/she has در ar in, door درد dozd thief مرا arā me ربيا zire beneath يربيا ābāžur lampshade

12.

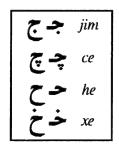
sin سـ س šin شـ ش

The letters sin and sin are joined letters. They represent respectively the sounds s and s (see 2/3). The short and full forms

are used in the same way as those of the be group (1/5 above). The short form rests on the line of print, while the flourish of the full form swoops below. win is by far the commonest letter (out of three possible) for writing the sound s.

يس pas then پس si thirty شام šām dinner شام pošt back شستن

13.



This group of four joined letters is jim (sounded j), ce or cim (sounded c), he (sounded h) and xe (sounded x). See 2/3 for the sounds c and x. Short and full forms are used as are those of the be group, 1/5 above.

ارج jā place خارج xārej outside خارج hājat need پیچ pic screw \*غرق tea pāitaxt capital city

An initial 'tooth' (see 1/5 above) preceding one of these letters is often inverted and raised:

tejārat trade تجارت

xod, xiš oneself خود، خویش xāstan to want خواسان خوردن xoš well

<sup>\*</sup>  $\bar{a}i$  written, exceptionally, with one ye; see 1/7 above.



 $l\bar{a}m$  is a joined letter, with no dots. It is pronounced l. Its full and short forms are used as are those of the be group, 1/5 above.

This letter is distinct from l *alef* , since *alef* is disjoined and  $l\bar{a}m$  is joined.

The combination  $l\bar{a}m + alef$  has special forms, one used when it is joined to the previous letter, and another when it is not. The form [U] is never used:

The joined letter called he is the commoner of the two letters used for the sound h. It is often called he havvaz to distinguish it from the less common letter  $\mathcal{L}$  given in 1/13 above. b and its variants all rest on the line, apart from the lower part of the forms  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $\mathcal{L}$ . This letter has four forms:

- one used at the beginning of a word or after a disjoined letter:
- two alternative forms used when the letter is joined on both sides:
- one used at the end of a word or when the letter stands alone: •.

Silent final b. After the unwritten vowel e, the letter b at the end

of a word is silent:

ayande future ديده dide seen ديده xāne house خانه

Silent final  $\boldsymbol{\delta}$  is also, exceptionally, found after the short unwritten vowel a in the expressions

من na no من الله na ... na neither ... nor

When a word ending with silent  $\delta$  is extended with a suffix, the next letter starts afresh; or, with a few suffixes, the  $\delta$  is dropped:

xānehouseخانه هاxānehāhousesnāmelettersināmehālettersمیوهها\میوجات\میوها\میوجات\میوه جاتmivemivehā/mivejātfruits

After this silent final  $\bullet$ , any added syllable beginning -i is written with its own introductory *alef*:

jomle sentence جمله jomlei a sentence جمله riše root ریشه rišei rootlike

Details are given in the discussion of each suffix or other ending as it occurs.

In words such as those shown above the final  $\mathfrak{d}$  is a graphic device or a grammatical ending. In words with final  $\mathfrak{d}$  after e where the  $\mathfrak{d}$  is not an ending but part of the root of the word, the  $\mathfrak{d}$  is sounded h. Such words are not numerous:

motavajjeh attentive متوجه

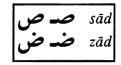
16. كى كى لك يۇ gāf

These are the joined letters b  $k\bar{a}f$  (pronounced k) and b  $g\bar{a}f$  (pronounced g; see also 2/3 for both sounds). They stand on the line of writing; their short and full forms are used in the same way as those of the be group (1/5 above).  $k\bar{a}f$  has two possible

. ك and ك and

mi konad he/she does می کند ke that, when pezešk doctor يزشك پزشك mesvāk toothbrush kalam cabbage *kār* work kelās (school) class kal stag garm wam mi guyad he/she says rang colour gorg wolf gāhi sometimes *gol* flower گ **3** gomrok customs golābi pear

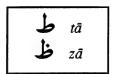
17.



The letters  $s\bar{a}d$  and  $z\bar{a}d$  are joined letters. Their short and full forms are used as are those of the be group (1/5 above). The loop rests on the line of print, and the 'flourish' of the full form curves below. These letters represent respectively the sounds s and z; o is less common than o sin for s (1/12 above) and o is less common than o sin for o (1/11 above). o and o mostly occur in words taken from Arabic.

surat list اصل asl origin صورت saxs person مخصوص maxsus special مخصوص hāzer present, ready مضا emzā signature

18.



19.



The letters called *ein* and *qein* are joined letters. Each has four forms:

- and is are written at the beginning of a word or after a disjoined letter.
- \* and \* are written when the letter is joined on both sides.
- ¿ and ¿ are written at the end of a word after a disjoined letter; or when the letter stands alone.
- and are written at the end of a word after a joined letter.

You will see that the closed forms are written after a joined letter in the same word, and the open forms when no joined letter precedes in the same word.

At the beginning of a word  $\varphi$  is silent. The formal sound of  $\varphi$  in the middle or at the end of a word is ' (the 'glottal stop'), but it is sometimes dropped; see 2/3.

The sound of  $\dot{\mathbf{z}}$  is q, for which see 2/3.

asr late afternoon عصر mouzu' subject qāyeb absent خايب doruq lie (untruth)

ta'til holiday تعطیل man' prevention منع taqyir change مبلغ mablaq amount

20.



The two joined letters  $\mathbf{i}$   $\mathbf{f}$  e (sounded  $\mathbf{f}$ ) and  $\mathbf{j}$   $\mathbf{q}$   $\mathbf{f}$  (sounded  $\mathbf{q}$ , see 2/3) form a group. Their short and full forms are used as are those of the  $\mathbf{b}$   $\mathbf{e}$  group (1/5 above). All forms lie on the line of print except full-form  $\mathbf{j}$  which swoops below.

أفكر fekr thought, idea بيفهم bifahm stupid فكر barf snow كثيف kasif dirty انقلاب enqelāb revolution برق barq lightning, electricity برق

#### 21. Doubled letters

explain.

Two identical consonants with an intervening vowel are written separately:

mamnun grateful محنون

(short unwritten a between the two letters n, long written n).

Two identical consonants with no intervening vowel are written as one consonant, but pronounced double *when a vowel follows* (see 2/4):

بچه bacce child بجه najjār carpenter عنی hattā even (see 1/7 above for final عنی pronounced ā) 1/23 below shows a means of indicating the doubled consonant. This general rule is broken when two identical consonants come together in the formation of a compound word; 11/2 and 3

می آییم mi āim we come می گویید mi guid you say
See also 1/7 and 8 above, and 1/24 below.

In a few words the combination  $\bar{a}i$  is written with one ye: see 1/13.

#### 22. Whole alphabet

Here is the alphabet in its Persian order; see 2/3 for details of pronunciation. For the sounds t, s, h and z the alternative letters are graded in order of frequency. 1 indicates the most common; letters graded 2 to 4 are mostly found in words taken from Arabic. The two letters pronounced q are of roughly equal frequency; is found mainly in words taken from Arabic.

Letter	Name	Sound: frequency t, s, h, z, q	<u>Reference</u>
(* <b>Ī</b>	alef madde	Initial: $\bar{a}$ )	1/4
1	alef	Initial: shows a, o, e or introduces	
		$u, i, ou, ei.$ Middle or final: $\bar{a}$ .	1/3
ب	be	b	1/5
پ	pe	p	
ت	te	<i>t</i> 1	
ن ت پ ث	se	s 3	
	jim	j	1/13
Ę	ce	c	
で を て・こ ゝ ゝ	he (hoti)	h 2	
خ	xe	X	
3	dāl	d	1/10
ذ	$z\bar{a}l$	z <b>4</b>	
ر	re	r	1/11
ز	ze	z 1	
ڗ	že	ž	
س	sin	s 1	1/12
ش	šin	<i>š</i>	
ص	sād	s 2	1/17
ض	zād	z 2	
ط	tā	t 2	1/18
ظ	$z\bar{a}$	z 3	
ع	ein	Initial: silent. Middle or final: '	1/19
لعن و و و و و و و و و و و و و و و و	qein	q	

ف	fe	f	1 20
ق	qāf	q	
ك گ	kāf	$\boldsymbol{k}$	1/16
گ	gāf	g	
J	lām	1	1/14
م	mim	m	1/9
م ن	nun	n	1/6
و	vāv	Initial: $v$ . Middle or final: $v$ , $u$ , $ou$ , $(o)$	1/8
		After ╆ : often silent	1/13
•	he (havvaz)	h; but when final after $e(a)$ : silent	1/15
ى	ye	Initial: y. Middle: y, i. ei. Final: i, ei. ye	1/7
		after ا (first ye silent) : أ	1/7, 8
		(Final in a few words from Arabic: $\bar{a}$ )	1/7

\*  $\tilde{l}$  alef madde is only a variant of l alef which is the first letter. But in many dictionaries all words beginning  $\tilde{l}$  are listed before words beginning l.

The word *ordu* 'camp' helps to recall the four disjoined letters or families of letters.

### 23. Non-alphabetical signs

Certain non-alphabetical signs, most of them rarely used, exist to fix the pronunciation of the word. The main ones are:

vowels ... a (called fathe or zebar), ... o (zamme or piš), ... e (kasre or zir), after 1 at the beginning of a word, or after a consonant in any position:

ān asbe bozorg that big horse أَن أَسب بِرُركَ

• vowel-combinations .... ou and .... ei, after 1 at the beginning of a word, or after a consonant in any position:

- two marks peculiar to consonants:
  - ... called tašdid, written above a consonant to show that

it is pronounced double:

## bacce child بچه

 ... called sokun or jazm, written above a consonant to show that it has no vowel after it:

## asb horse آسب

The signs shown above are rarely encountered outside schoolbooks. One sign which, however, is almost always shown is the adverbial ending called tanvin and written l... pronounced -an (short a) after a consonant:

مرتبًا مرتبًا morattaban regularly تقريبًا taqriban approximately معمولاً telefonan by telephone معمولاً haqiqat truth

When this ending is added to a word taken from Arabic and ending in e + silent  $\bullet$  (see 1/15 above), both these are dropped and replaced by  $\mathbf{f}$ ... -atan:

العده qā'ede rule قاعدتًا qā'edatan as a rule

We also still encounter in some dictionaries and older texts the original Arabic spelling ...... The pronunciation is the same, -atan:

(قاعدةً) for قاعدةً qā'edatan (قاعدةً) for قاعدةً qā'edatan See 7/2 for more about the endings أ... -an and أ... -atan.

# 24. c hamze

• , called *hamze*, is a letter not listed in the alphabet. It is never joined to anything. It never stands at the beginning of a word. Its basic form is as shown here, but it appears and sounds differently according to whether it is used in Persian words, or in words taken from Arabic.

**hamze** in Persian words. In Persian words *hamze* may be written over silent final  $\bullet$  (1/15 above), to represent *ye* (the *ezāfe*, see Appendix II):

خانهٔ ایشان xāneye išān his/her/their house میوهٔ تازه miveye tāze fresh fruit

The *hamze* representing *ye* (the *ezāfe*) is usually written only when extra clarity is wanted; otherwise it is often left unwritten:

xāneye išān خانه ایشان miveye tāze میوه تازه

We also encounter the form  $\boldsymbol{z}$  (now little used) for -iye, showing the ezāfe after words ending in  $\boldsymbol{z}$ :

sandaliye rāhati easy chair صندلی راحتی) for صندلی مندلی عادی احتی

In older Persian, including some dictionaries, we find the combination  $\frac{1}{7}$  instead of  $\frac{1}{7}$  (1/7, 8, 21 above), for i after  $\bar{a}$  or u:

(earlier شیمیائی) šimiāi chemical بگویید beguid say

and  $\bullet$ ... instead of modern .... -ei/-e i at the end of a word (1/15 above):

(earlier جمله) jomlei a sentence (جملهٔ وحلهٔ) qahvei rang brown قهوه ای رنگ (earlier خستهٔ) xaste i you are tired

In a few words taken from other languages the form  $\stackrel{*}{\smile}$  is used to mark the transition from one vowel to another:

ژوئن žuan June (from French juin) ایدئولوژیست ideoložist ideologist گازوئیل

hamze in words taken from Arabic. In words taken from Arabic, hamze may occur before or after any letter in the middle or at the end of a word:

• in the middle, أ a'/'a, ؤ o', ئو 'u, ئ :

• in the middle, أ a'/'a, ؤ o', ئو 'u, ئ :

• ta'sis foundation

• mas'ul responsible

• mas'ale/masale problem

Middle أ is often written 1:

## masale. مساله mota'assef,

 at the end, it is normally written by itself, and is usually silent in Persian:

Some words written with final  $\lim_{n \to a} -\bar{a}$  can still be found with their original Arabic spelling  $\epsilon \lim_{n \to a} -\bar{a}$ . The pronunciation is the same, as the  $\epsilon$  is silent:

(ابتداء ebtedā beginning (formerly)

nasta'lia

• hamze must not be confused with short-form • (1/19 above) which it visibly resembles.

## 25. نستعلیق nasta'liq script

Standard forms

nasx

The form of script shown in 1/3-24 above is called نسخ nasx. It is the script used in newspapers, notices and mass-circulated books. An older calligraphic script form, called in nasta'liq, is often used for fine printing, titles and posters. In nasx the line of print is more or less level, whereas in nasta'liq each group of letters tends to 'cascade' above its predecessor, so: . This and other important differences in style are summarised below:

Standard fort	<u>115</u> .		
'cascading'	فارسى	fārsi Persian	فارسی
	دوستان من	dustāne man my friends	د و ستان من
さてきて	خجالت	xejālat shame	خجالت
	پیچ	pic screw	Ĕ
ك گ	كوچك	kucek small	کو چک
	گرگ	gorg wolf	گر گ
کا گا	کارگر	<i>kārgar</i> workman	کارگر

		1 - writing		
	بنگاه	bongāh institution	ه الله	
کل گل	كليد	kelid key	کلید گل	
	گل	gol flower	گل	
ХY	بالا	<i>bālā</i> above	กั	
	كلاس	kelās class	کلاس	
فاقا tooth or	بی	bi without	بی کافی	
ک\گ\ل	كافي	<i>kāfī</i> sufficient	•	
عى final +	تركى	torki Turkish	تر کی	
	ملی	melli national	ملی	
Optional alternative forms:				
س ش	نشسا <i>ن</i>	nešastan to sit	كشتن	

شش	šeš six	حث
يسرها ها initial	pesarhā sons	پسر با
initial هـ	har every	۶.
كوتاهتر	kutāhtar shorter	کو تا جتر
final joined . Let	lule tube	لوله
بيمه	bime insurance	مريم. • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
final ھی after any	dusti friendship	د و ستے
عراقی joined letter	<i>erāqi</i> Iraqi	عراقے

Here, for comparison, is a poem by عمر جياً م omare xayyām Omar Khayyam, in nasx and in nasta'liq, with two translations, one close, and one free by Edward Fitzgerald:

خیّام اگر ز باده مستی خوش باش با لاله رخی ومی نشستی خوش باش چون عاقبت کار جهان نیستی است انگار که نیستی ، چو هستی خوش باش عمر جبّام

خیّام اگر زباده مستی خوش باش بالاله رخی و می نشستے خوش باش چون عاقبت کار جھان نیستی است انگار کہ نیستی چوہستی خوش باش مزیری

xayyām, agar z bāda\* mast i, xoš bāš; bā lāleroxi o mi nešasti, xoš bāš. cun āqabate kāre jahān nisti st, engār ke nisti; co hasti, xoš bāš

omare xayyām

(\* عز باده z bāda = از شراب az šarāb 'from wine')

Khayyam, if thou art drunk with wine, be glad!

If seated next one with tulip cheeks, be glad!

Since the world's work has no hereafter, think then

Thou mightst not be - but since thou art, be glad!

And if the Wine you drink, the Lip you press,
End in the Nothing all Things end in - yes,
Then fancy while Thou art, Thou art but what
Thou shalt be - Nothing - Thou shalt not be less.
transl. Edward Fitzgerald

#### 26. Standard handwritten forms

The most important features of standard handwriting are shown

below. Many of them reflect the *نستعليق nasta'liq* script shown in 1/25 above.

**l** *alef*. When not joined to a previous letter, **l** *alef* is written downwards. Following a joined letter, it is written upwards:

See below for the writing of alef after  $\int l\bar{a}m$  and after  $\psi k\bar{a}f$ .

**Dots.** Two dots are written like a hyphen - ; three dots form a rough ring written in either direction as convenient,  $\curvearrowright$  or  $\leadsto$  :

etc. Letters of the *jim* group are often joined to the preceding letter at the upper right corner in print, but always at the upper left corner (i.e. at the beginning of the outline) in handwriting. A preceding initial tooth is almost always inverted (see 1/13 above). Compare the forms:

**mim.** After a joined letter, **mim** should be approached from the top, and the 'bead' written anticlockwise **§**. A preceding initial tooth is almost always inverted (see 1/9 above):

This handwritten form effectively distinguishes middle joined — mim from middle joined — ein, which is always approached from below and written clockwise &:

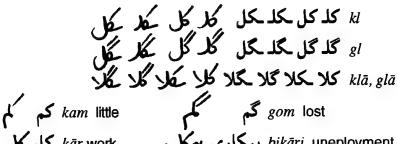
**Middle tooth.** See 1/5. A middle tooth, i.e. one joined on both sides, has a special raised handwritten form before mim or  $\sqrt[n]{re/ze}$ . Examine the forms:

litr litre ليتر ليتر

Initial and middle  $-s\bar{a}d$  and  $\dot{z}\bar{a}d$  have a tooth after their loop; this tooth must not be omitted in handwriting. It behaves like a middle tooth before -mim or  $\dot{z}$ 

rezāmi military خطور مخطور مطور مطور معطور معطور معطور معطور معطور sin and ش šin. In all but the most careful handwriting, the indentations of these letters are flattened out into a smooth curve, thus:

and handwritten forms:



bikāri uneployment بیکاری بیکاری بیکاری bikāri uneployment کارکار bikāri uneployment کارکار istgāh station, stop کاهی گاهی کاهی استگاه نشکل میکاهی šekl form کلاس کلاکی kelās class

The form & is not used in handwriting.

• he. The middle form 
is seldom used in handwriting; the simpler form 
is written instead. The final form joined to the preceding letter, printed 
is very often simplified in handwriting to 

∴:

Final  $\omega$  ye. When final  $\omega$  ye is preceded by a tooth, or by any of the letters  $2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \int e^{i} q df$ ,  $2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \int k df / g df$  or  $1 \leq \frac{1}{2} \int k df / g df$ , the junction is handwritten as a sharp angle, and the ye loses its first curve:

But after other joined letters (including with its tooth, see above) the junction is rounded, and ye has both its curves:

## šekaste handwriting شكسته . 27

Many Iranians use so-called *šekaste* or 'broken' handwriting, a form greatly simplified for the writer but often very difficult for the

inexperienced reader. *Sekaste* also draws some of its forms from *nasta'liq*, shown in 1/25 above. The forms shown below are used in addition to the simplifications found in standard handwriting (1/26).

**Dots.** In the 'toughest' *šekaste* many dots may be left out altogether. Or they may stray away from the outline to which they belong; occasionally one and two dots on successive letters may be grouped as three (i.e. in a ring):

(Dis)joined letters. Often, the letters ! و ژ ز ر ذ د , in principle not joined to the following letter, are nevertheless so joined in *Sekaste*. Common combinations:

• he. Two nasta'liq forms for this letter are used in šekaste; the final form joined to a previous letter, and the detached syllable hā:

# لي بيدها بيدها مير baccehā children

Modified final letters. Some letters, the most common being ن ت and ى, have modified final forms in *šekaste*:

## 28. Persian transcription

The transcription of foreign words (mostly names) often reflects the fact that French was once the most widely taught European language in Iran. Whatever the source language, short and long vowels are often not distinguished. Examples:

eskotland Scotland فرانسه ferānse France فرانسه nyuyork 'New York' is an exception to this rule, probably because its second letter یا y is a semi-vowel.

### 2. Pronunciation

#### 1. Transcription

See 1/22-24 for the transcription used in this book for Persian writing.

#### 2. Long and short vowels; diphthongs (vowel-combinations)

It is important to distinguish between the three short vowels and their long counterparts, and between these and the two vowelcombinations. Pronounce as follows:

Short: a as a in Southern English 'bat'

e between <u>e</u> and <u>i</u> in English 'bet' and 'bit'; ending a word: like French é in 'café'

o between o and u in English 'pot' and 'put'

Long:  $\bar{a}$  between the  $\underline{a}$ 's in English 'dark' and 'talk';  $\bar{a}$  is the deep sound which you produce when the doctor tells you to say 'a-a-ah'.

i as i in English 'machine'

u as  $\underline{u}$  in English 'rule' or in German 'Buch' Combinations: ei as  $\underline{ei}$  in English 'weight'

ou as ou in English 'soul'

ا man من

del heart دل se three

tond fast

آن  $\bar{a}n$  that

nim hall سیم Jonati

tul length طول meil inclination

*nou* new نو

#### 3. Consonants

The consonants transcribed b, p, t, s, j, d, z, f, m, n, v are pronounced much as in English. The other consonants merit closer attention. Some easier ones first:

c as ch in English 'rich'

h as  $\underline{h}$  in English 'how'. It is pronounced wherever transcribed h, even in the middle or at the end of the word.

x as <u>ch</u> in Scots 'loch', Welsh 'bach' or German 'Buch'; or j in Spanish 'bajo'

r rolled <u>r</u>, as in Italian or Spanish. It is

ييچ pic screw پيچ hāl conditon حال pahn broad

xun blood خون ruz day

always pronounced wherever it occurs, never dropped as in some English درس dars lesson speech.

- ž as j in French 'jour', or s in English 'treasure' ويژه viže special
- š as <u>sh</u> in English 'she' شام šām dinner
- l always 'light' as in English 'leaf', never 'dark' as in English 'wall' lāl dumb
- y always a consonant, as  $\underline{v}$  in English 'year', never with a vowel sound as in English 'my'  $\underline{v}\bar{a}$  or

': • and •. The transcription 'represents the 'glottal stop', i.e. a catch in the breath. It is the sound heard in some speech of Southeastern England, or parts of Scotland: "wo' a lo' o' " for "what a lot of". The stop is spelt sometimes with • (hamze), sometimes with •. In modern Persian it is pronounced only in the middle or at the end of words taken from Arabic, and not always then. It is a very weak sound, barely audible in the speech of most Iranians:

• in the middle of a word, when spelt with the stop is usually pronounced:

sā'at hour, clock جمعه jom'e Friday

When spelt with  $\epsilon$  it is either pronounced weakly, or not at all. The Arabic spellings for *hamze* 1, 3 and 4 are found, often with alternatives:

متأسف متأسف mota'assef/motaassef sorry
مسئله mas'ale/masale problem
مسئله مسئله مسأله مسأله so'āl/soāl question
مسئوليت mas'uliyat/masuliyat responsibility

• at the end of a word, • or • after a consonant is usually silent, though some people pronounce the • as a stop:

بزء joz part برع rob/rob' quarter but when an ezāfe (Appendix II) is added to such a word, the • or • ceases to be final and is usually pronounced:

joz'e in mablaq part of this amount جزء این مبلغ

rob'e qarz a quarter of the loan

Final • after a vowel is found mostly in older spellings, and is silent; final • after a vowel is usually pronounced as a stop:

استثنا ء estesnā exception (formerly استثناء nou' kind, sort

No word begins with • hamze . • at the beginning of a word is silent:

ozv member عضو

ādat custom عادت

 $m{q}$ . This sound is the 'voiced' or hard equivalent of x, shown above; its nearest European equivalent is French  $\underline{r}$  in 'Marie' or German  $\underline{r}$  in 'fahren'. This sound is the everyday pronunciation of both  $\dot{z}$  and  $\dot{z}$ :

Some people retain for some words the original Arabic pronunciation of  $\ddot{u}$  which is that of k pronounced very deep in the throat. Since this happens in only a few words, and many Persians confuse the two sounds anyway in their attempt to differentiate, we will show the pronunciation q throughout, which is always correct for both letters.

## k. k has two sounds:

 before ā, o, u, ou or a consonant it sounds like c or k in English 'cook':

kār work کار

mi konam I do میکنم kucektar smaller

anywhere else, it sounds like k but is 'palatalised', i.e. there
is a slight y-sound after it; we can imagine its being
represented as ky:

کم  $kam [k^y am]$  a little  $yek [yek^y]$  one If you know Russian, imagine pronouncing a (hypothetical) soft 'Kb'. This is similar to palatalised Persian k.

g. g has two sounds:

 before ā, o, u, ou or a consonant it sounds like hard g in English 'good':

 anywhere else, it sounds like g but is palatalised in the same way as is k:

If you know Russian, imagine pronouncing a soft 'ть'.

At no time is g pronounced like soft g in English 'gem'.

Because palatalisation follows a simple rule with no exceptions, it will not be shown in the transcription.

mb: نبد. The combination نبد. The combination نبد

šambe Saturday

#### 4. Doubled letters

Doubled consonants (i. e. two identical consonants with no intervening vowel, see 1/21 and 23) are pronounced double, that is, held for longer than single consonants, when followed by a vowel in the same word or phrase:

bacce child (pronounced as if transcribed bac-ce)
We sound doubled consonants in this manner in a few English words, for example 'midday', pronounced as if spelt mid-day.

A doubled consonant not followed by a vowel in the same word or phrase is pronounced single:

مهم است mohemm ast it is important
but: مهمتر mohemtar (for [mohemmtar]) more important
haqqan rightfully

but: حق شناس haq šenās (for [haqq šenās]) grateful

The spellings ایی and ایی are pronounced  $\bar{a}i$ ; the spelling ویی is pronounced ui or (in one or two words) oi:

mi āid you come می آیید mi āid you come راستگویی rāstgui truthfulness

Avoid the wrong pronunciation [yi] for this doubled letter; the first ye does no more than mark the transition, and is silent. See 1/7, 8 and 24.

#### 5. Stress

In any word of more than one syllable, we stress one of the syllables, i.e. pronounce it more strongly than the rest. The position of the stress is regular in Persian. In this paragraph, and at certain other points in the book, we mark the vowel of the stressed syllable with an accent ...:

**Verbs.** See 5/1 for the definition of a verb. Verbs and their derivatives are stressed as follows:

 When the verb or verbal derivative has no prefix, it is stressed on the last syllable, discounting any personal ending. Compare

نوشتن neveštán to write نوشتن nevisandé writer نوشت nevéšt he/she wrote نوشته nevešté written with

seréftand they took گرفتند dáram I have گرفتند geréftand they took باشد bášad let it-be

The one exception to this rule is that the auxiliary verb of the future tense (5/27) is stressed on the personal ending when the verb is affirmative:

 when the verb or verbal derivative has one prefix or more, the first or only prefix (even when written separately) takes the stress:

náneveštam I didn't write

nádāram I have not

nádāram I write

mí nevisam I write

némi nevisam I don't write

nábāšad let it not be

nánevešte not written/unwritten

 in the future tense, the auxiliary verb takes the stress of the whole tense, following the rules given in the preceding two indents:

خواهم نوشت xāhám nevešt I shall write مغواهم نوشت náxāham nevešt I shall not write

 in compound verbs (5/29), the stress of the whole verb falls on the non-verbal element in the affirmative and on the negative prefix in the negative:

> کار می کردم kār mi kardam I was working کار غی کردم kār némi kardam I was not working

**Interjections and conjunctions.** Interjections, and many conjunctions, are stressed on the first syllable:

náxeir no نخير hále yes بله مؤلان váli but اگر cérā why

**Other words.** Words other than verbs, interjections or conjunctions are stressed on the last syllable of the root (i.e. the word without any additions):

rangzán painter رنگزن rangzán painter بیرون birún outside شما šomá you davāzdáh twelve

**Suffixes.** The stress rules for suffixes (syllables added to words, including any written detached), and for personal endings of verbs are:

- The following are unstressed and have no effect on stress:
  - personal endings of verbs (-am, -i, -ad, -im, -id, -and),
     however written, other than those of the future auxiliary in the affirmative (see above)
  - the ezāfe -e and -ye (Appendix II), however written
  - the indefinite suffix -i and the relative suffix -i (Appendix III), however written
  - the direct-object suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  (Appendix IV)
  - the possessive and pronoun-object suffixes -.... -am, -et/at, ش... -eš/aš etc. (3/11, 4/3).
- All others assume the stress of the word to which they relate, even if written separately. The main stressed suffixes are:
  - all plural suffixes: ها -há, الله -án, -án, -egán, -egán, الله -égán, -ún (3/4) -...ات -át, -...ات
  - the adjective suffixes ترین -tár, ترین -tár( (3/9, 10), ای -é (9/6), ای -é (9/6), ای -egí (11/3), and the abstract noun suffixes را -egí (11/2), together with other less common noun and adjective suffixes explained in 11/2 and 11/3.
  - the ordinal-number suffixes مين -óm, مين -omín (9/3).

In English, the vowel of an unstressed syllable often loses its typical sound and becomes neutral; examples are the  $\underline{a}$  in 'asleep' and the  $\underline{o}$ 's in 'production'. In Persian, all the vowels of a word, including those in unstressed syllables, keep their typical sound. The neutral sound of  $\underline{a}$  in English 'asleep' does not exist in Persian:

بزرگترین bozorgtarín biggest بزرگترین panjarehá windows

**Vocative stress of the noun.** See 3/1 for the definition of a noun. The rule for stress given under 'other words' above applies to nouns when the noun is *spoken about*. If we address a person, the

noun denoting that person is then stressed on its *first* syllable. This is called 'vocative' stress. Compare:

in āqā pir ast. This gentleman is old. این آقا پیر است. خانم نیست. خانم نیست. baccehā mi xāband.

The children are sleeping.

th: ببخشید آقا. bebaxšid āqā. Excuse me, sir.

بفرمایید خانم. befarmāid xánom. Here you are, ma'am. خانمها و آقایان xánomhā va áqāyān Ladies and gentlemen بحد ها، وقت خواب شده.

Children, it's ('become') bedtime.

# 6. Colloquial pronunciation

The Persian of this book is that of educated speech. But all Persian speakers, whatever their education, use what we can call 'standard' pronunciation in more formal contexts, and 'colloquial' pronunciation for everyday speech. A simple parallel can be drawn in English speech: standard would be 'he is not', colloquial 'he isn't'. Each is correct, depending on the occasion. Persian colloquial pronunciation is shown between angular quotation marks <...> in this book. The main elements of colloquial pronunciation are:

- The syllable ān becomes (un) or (on) in almost all words; the syllable ām becomes (um) or (om) in a few words:
  - اًن  $\bar{a}n$   $\langle un, on \rangle$  that  $\bar{a}mad$   $\langle umad, omad \rangle$  he/she came
- The direct-object suffix  $\int_{\mathcal{I}} r\bar{a}$  becomes  $\langle ra \rangle$  after a vowel,  $\langle a \rangle$  or  $\langle ra \rangle$  after a consonant:
  - urā ‹uro› him/her آن را ān rā ‹on o. on ro› it
- Many irregular present stems of verbs have a colloquial form, shorter than the standard form:

دادن dādan to give, present stem .... deh- ‹d-›:
میدهم mi deham ‹mi dam› I give
میدهم
bedehim ‹bedim› let's give

• The 3rd-person singular ending 3... -ad of the present tense becomes <-e> after a consonant; the 2nd- and 3rd-person plural endings 3... -id and 3... -and of all tenses and the imperative become <-in> and <-an> respectively:

می ماند mi mānad «mi mune» he/she stays
می nemi dānid «nemi dunin» you don't know
raftand «raftan» they went

ast 'is' becomes -e after a word ending in a consonant:

intour ast <intour e> it is/it's so اینطور است

 The dropping of the glottal stop (2/3 above) is even more widespread in colloquial pronunciation, some people dropping the stop altogether:

> ساعت sāʾat ‹sāat› hour, clock, watch متأسفم. motaʾassefam ‹motaassefam›. I'm sorry.

• The *ezāfe* (3/5, 8; Appendix II) is often omitted:

tuye xāneye ali ‹tu xāne ali› in Ali's house راه آهن rāhe āhan ‹rāh āhan› railway

 A few words have their own colloquial form. Common ones are:

xub ‹xob› good خوب digar ‹dige› other

Colloquial pronunciation is represented in Persian writing only in cartoon captions, dialogue, comic strips, popular advertisements and the like.

The applications of colloquial pronunciation are given in detail where they arise throughout this book.

# 7. Arabic forms

Most Arabic words and expressions incorporated into Persian are pronounced in a Persian manner. These forms are examined in Chapter 10.



taxte jamšid Persepolis

# 1. Nouns - general

A noun is a word denoting a person, creature, place, thing or idea. The nouns shown in this chapter are mostly simple nouns, i.e. not derived from other parts of speech.

Simple nouns are usually stressed on the last syllable (see 2/5):

ketāb book كتاب nāmé letter

See 5/20 and 11/2 for the derivation of nouns from other parts of speech, and for compound nouns.

#### 2. Definite and indefinite nouns

A noun is definite when its identity is known, and indefinite when its identity is not known. Persian has no definite article corresponding to English 'the'. A Persian noun in its basic form is either definite or indefinite, depending on the context:

saxs (the) personخیابانxiābān (the) streetmāh (the) monthکلاهkolāh (the) hatjā (the) placepāru (the) spadexāne (the) housekašti (the) ship

To make the noun clearly indefinite ('a, an  $\dots$ ' etc.), the suffix -i can be added. This indefinite suffix does not affect the stress of the word:

After a consonant, the suffix is spelt ...:

شخصی šaxsi a person, some person دنابانی xiābāni a street سقhi a month, any month kolāhi a hat

• After a vowel  $|\bar{a}|$  or u, it is written u...:

*jāi* a place پارویی *pārui* a spade

Do not pronounce this combination u as [-yi]; the first letter ye is silent.

After a silent final a (see 1/15), it is written with a separate
 !:

خانهای xānei a house, any house

For a noun ending in ... -i in the basic form, the indefinite form is the same:

کشتی kašti ship, the ship, a ship صندلی sandali chair, the chair, a chair

When a series of nouns connected with  $\int va/o$  'and' is made indefinite, only the last noun carries the indefinite suffix:

ا کاغذ و مدادی kāqaz o medādi a paper and pencil کاغذ و مدادی pesar o doxtari a son and (a) daughter or: a boy and a girl

but in an indefinite series connected with  $y\bar{a}$  'or', the indefinite suffix is normally repeated:

ساعتی یا روزی sā'ati yā ruzi an hour or a day مدادی یا قلمی medādi yā qalami a pencil or (a) pen

The uses of the suffix ....-i are summarised in Appendix III.

See also 3/3 below.

**Countable and uncountable.** The indefinite suffix is added mostly to indefinite nouns which are *countable*, i.e. denoting persons, things etc. which can exist in separate units. It is rarely attached to *uncountable* nouns, which denote things, ideas etc. found only in a mass. Compare:

أيا قلمي هست؟ āyā qalami hast? Is there a pen? (countable, indefinite suffix)

with آیا نان هست؟ āyā nān hast? Is there any bread? (uncountable, no suffix)

Some Persian nouns can be used either as countable or uncountable, depending on their meaning. One such is  $j\bar{a}$ :

ب jā hast. There is space/room. (uncountable) بايى هست. jāi hast. There is a place (= vacancy, seat, countable).

The indefinite suffix is not used in the middle of an *ezāfe* construction (see 3/5 and 8 below).

# 3. Definite direct-object suffix $\int r\bar{a}$

When a definite noun is the direct object of a verb (see 5/6), the definite direct-object suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  is added to the noun. This suffix is written detached from its noun. The suffix does not affect the stress of the noun:

ketāb rā gereft. He/She took the book. مانوشته اند. nāme rā nevešte and.

They have written the letter.

To make the noun in these sentences indefinite, we need only remove the definite direct-object suffix  $\mathbf{I}_{j}$ :

ketāb gereft. He/She took a book.

نامه نوشته اند.  $n\bar{a}me$  nevešte and. They have written a letter. which sentences are correct as they stand. If we then add the indefinite suffix (3/2 above)

ketāhi gereft. کتابی گرفت. nāmei nevešte and.

we get a stronger indefinite meaning, 'He/She took some book or other', 'They have written some letter'.

When a series of direct-object nouns is connected with valo 'and', the direct-object suffix valo is added only after the last noun:

kāqaz va medād rā gereft. He took the paper and pencil.

پسر و دختر را دیدند. They saw the boy and girl.

The indefinite suffix  $\dots$  -i and the definite direct-object suffix may be used together, giving the meaning or implied meaning of the

English 'a certain ...'. Compare

mi xāhand xāne bexarand
They want to buy a house (as yet unknown).

and مى خواهند خانه را بخرند. mi xāhand xāne rā bexarand
They want to buy the house (one known to all).

with. می خواهند خانه ای را بخرند mi xāhand xānei rā bexarand
They want to buy a (certain) house (one known to them).

See 3/13 below for a similar structure having indefinite -i and definite direct-object  $\int r\bar{a}$  together.

In older Persian we also find the suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  showing an *in*direct object, i.e. with the meaning of the English 'to'. This survives today only in some set expressions, the commonest of which is probably

xodā rā šokr Thank God ('Thanks to God') خدا را شکر

**Colloquial pronunciation.** See 2/6. The direct-object suffix  $\int_{0}^{\infty}$  is pronounced colloquially  $\langle ro \rangle$  or  $\langle o \rangle$  after a consonant,  $\langle ro \rangle$  after a vowel:

ostād ro/ostād o> nadidam. استاد را ندیدم. ا didn't see the professor.

The uses of the suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  are summarised in Appendix IV.

## 4. Plural of nouns

مهمان مهمان مهمان مهمان مهمان مهمان مهمان مهمان مهمان afsár officer مهمان afsarán officers افسر afsarán officers كليدها kelid key كليدها gozārešhá reports گزارشها

Some Iranians still observe this person/not-person distinction, at

least in part, when forming the plural of a noun; but in modern everyday Persian there is a tendency to add ... also to many nouns denoting people:

مهمان mehmān guest مهمانها mehmānhā guests مهمان afsār officer افسرها afsār officers افسرها مهمانها afsār officers خاغها و آقایان

These suffixes are written, and their form is sometimes modified, as follows:

• Whenever it is possible to join ... to its noun in writing, this is correct, though it may also be written detached:

بچه ها bacce child بچه ها baccehā children

• is always joined to its noun in writing whenever this is possible:

# mostaxdemān employees

- After lā or مان ،.. -ān becomes بيان -yān:
   āqā gentleman آقايان āqāyān gentlemen
   dānešju student دانشجويان dānešjuyān students
- silent final ه plus الله -ān becomes عنان -egān (ه is dropped):

nevisande writer نویسنده writers rānande driver رانندگان rānande driver

Colloquial pronunciation. See 2/6. The suffix i... may be pronounced *(un)* in everyday speech.

Three other plural forms borrowed from Arabic and used for words taken from Arabic, survive in literary style, and are used for a few words (as alternatives to plurals in  $-h\bar{a}/-\bar{a}n$ ) in

everyday Persian:

• - i... -át (stressed). This is the Arabic so-called 'sound feminine' plural. It is added to certain words ending in a consonant and not denoting persons:

heivān animal حيوانات heivānāt animals With words ending in silent ه... -e and ت... -at, the final syllable is dropped before the plural suffix is added:

ملاحظه molāheze regard ملاحظه molāhezāt regards ملاحظه hekāyat story حكايات hekāyāt stories

In imitation of the Arabic, this suffix is also attached to

some native Persian words denoting things and ending in -e + silent b. The plural takes the form the b is sometimes kept in writing, sometimes dropped. The pronunciation for both spellings is the same,  $-ej\bar{a}t$ :

ruznāme newspaper روزنامه ruznāme newspapers روزنامجات\روزنامهجات mive(jāt) fruit(s)

• نین مین -in/-in (stressed). This is the Arabic so-called 'sound masculine' plural. It is added to certain nouns denoting male persons. After a consonant, the suffix is -in; after مین -in; after مین -in:

مترجم مترجم مترجم مترجم مترجمين motarjemin translators مترجمين este'māri colonialists استعماريون este'māriun colonialists

 the Arabic irregular or so-called 'broken' plural, in which no suffix is added but the word itself changes its shape (similarly to English 'man/men' or 'mouse/mice'):

قصول šaxs person اشخاص ašxās persons موج mouj wave موج amvāj waves فصول fasl season

masāel/masāyel مسئله masoblem مسئله

In everyday Persian some of these forms are found in set expressions:

amvāje kutāh/motavasset/boland short/medium/long waves

ayā mehmānhāi raside and? آیا مهمانهایی رسیده اند؟
Have any guests arrived?

بچه ها (یی) دیدم. baccehā(i) didam. I saw (some) children. baccehā rā didam. I saw the children.

بسرها و دخترهارا دیدم. I saw the boys and girls.

ketābhā rā bā xod borde ast.

He/She has taken the books with him/her.

Collectives. In an English sentence like 'The baby eats egg' we are not specifying one egg or several eggs, merely the idea 'egg' in general, for which we use the singular form of the noun, as a collective noun. Persian uses this device much more commonly than English, especially for general statements:

ān gorhe muš nemi girad ‹nemi gire›\*.

That cat doesn't catch mice ('mouse').

hamaš doruq ast ‹e›\*. It's all lies ('a lie'). in pesar kašti dust dārad. This boy likes ships.

sih mi forušand? Do they sell apples? \* colloquial pronunciation, see 2/6.

Using a noun collectively transforms it from *countable* to *uncountable* (see 3/2 above); hence we do not attach the indefinite suffix a... a: to a collective. Compare the sentence given above

(about the cat) with

قَن گریه موشی غی گیرد. . That cat doesn't catch a (single) mouse.

Examine also

inhā pic hastand These are screws.

in which the subject (اینها) and the verb (هستند) are plural. But the word پیچ pic 'screw' which is the complement (5/6) of the verb is collective and therefore singular in form.

Although translated with an English plural, the Persian noun stands in the basic singular form. In this meaning it is seen as neither definite nor indefinite, but general, and typifying all its kind.

# ezāfe with nouns اضافه.

**Possessive structure.** The first such relationship can be called the *possessive structure*. Examine:

.šāgerd pupil شاگرد ,ketābhā books كتابها

ketābhấye šāgerd the pupil's books ('the books of the pupil')

كار kār work, دانشجويان dānešjuyān students:

كار دانشجويان kāre dānešjuyān the students' work خانه xāne house, مدير modir director:

xānéye modir the director's house ('the house of the director')

يرويز ,sandali chair پرويز parviz Parviz

sandaliye parviz Parviz' chair صندلي پرويز

The 'possessed' noun stands first and carries the *ezāfe* suffixed to it; the 'possessor' noun follows, observing the formula 'the books of the pupil'.

In the examples given above the  $ez\bar{a}fe$  is shown in bold type in transcription; it never has any effect on the stress of the word.

The term 'possessive structure' is merely one of convenience. The association between the two nouns may be something other than possession:

kelid key, در dar door:

kelide dar the key of/to the door کلید در

گارگر kārgar workman, شکت šerkat company:

kārgare šerkat a company workman کارگر شرکت

rāh road, فرودگاه forudgāh airport:

rāhe forudgāh the airport road راه فرودگاه

hokumat government: حکومت budje budget بودجه

budjeye hokumat the government('s) budget

dānešjuyān students, دانشجريان dāneškade faculty:

دانشجریان دانشکده dānešjuyāne dāneškade the faculty students

The 'possessor' noun may be a long infinitive (5/2):

neveštan to write, عددها adadhā figures:

neveštane adadhā the writing of figures

The *ezāfe* can be repeated, in a 'string'; further, any noun in the expression may have a demonstrative adjective (see 3/12 below):

hudjeye hokumate koveit the Kuwait Government('s) budget

kāre dānešjuyāne in dāneškade the work of the students of this faculty

raise ān kašti the captain of that ship رئيس آن كشتى

In an  $ez\bar{a}fe$  construction, the nouns are usually understood to be definite or indefinite as they stand, depending on the context. The 'possessor' noun may be made clearly indefinite with the indefinite suffix (3/2 above) if necessary, but not the 'possessed' noun, since this suffix may not interrupt the  $ez\bar{a}fe$ :

nāme dānešjui some student's name

nomreye māšini a car number غرة ماشيني

The *ezāfe* is not used in expressions of measurement such as 'a kilo of sugar', 'a cup of tea'; see 9/8 for these.

**Apposition**. The second use of the *ezāfe* with nouns is to link two nouns which are in *apposition*, i.e. the same in identity. The *ezāfe* is attached to the first noun:

xiābāne hāfez Hafiz Street خيابان حافظ šahre qazvin the city of Qazvin

The commonest form of apposition is with آقا خانم āqā/xānom 'Mr, Mrs, Miss' and the person's name or further title:

خانم نوشزاد xānome nušzād Mrs/Miss Noushzad قای بهروزی āqāye behruzi Mr Behrouzi قای سفیر āqāye safīr Mr Ambassador

The ezāfe also connects a person's given name and family name:

abbāse hādiān Abbas Hadian

The *ezāfe* is not normally used with other titles or professions followed by the name, even though there is apposition:

دكتر همايون doktor homāyun Dr Homayoun ostād tabātabāi Professor Tabatabai

In using these titles when speaking to the person, we use *vocative stress* on the title, for which see 2/5:

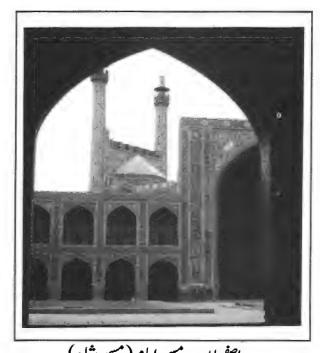
salām āqāye manucehri Hello, Mr Manuchehri

 $r\bar{a}$  with the *ezāfe*. The direct-object suffix  $r\bar{a}$  (3/3 above) may not interrupt the *ezafe* construction.  $r\bar{a}$  appears once, at the end of the expression:

?barādare abbās rā mi šenāsid برادر عباس را می شناسید؟ ?Do you know Abbas' brother

آقای صبوری را ندیده ام. ا didn't see/haven't seen Mr Sabouri.

āyā qessehāye hedāyat rā آيا قصه هاى هدايت را خوانده ايد؟ xānde id? Have you read the stories of Hedayat?



اصفهان، متجداماً م (متجدشاه) esfahān - masjede emām (masjede šāh) Isfahan - Imam Mosque (King's Mosque)

# 6. Adjectives - general

An adjective is a word describing (the grammatical term is 'qualifying') a noun (3/1 above) or a pronoun (4/1). Most of the adjectives examined in this chapter are simple adjectives, i.e. not derived from other parts of speech.

Simple adjectives are normally stressed on the last syllable:

See 5/20 and 11/3 for the derivation of adjectives from other parts of speech, and for compound adjectives.

Any adjective may be used as a noun if the meaning permits it:

فقیر faqir poor or poor person/man/woman جوان javān young or young person/man

# 7. Adjective used as complement

One use of the adjective is as a complement (see 5/6) of the verb:
. این پدر مهربان است.
. in pedar mehrabān ast. This father is kind.
. این کار آسان نیست.
. in kār āsān nist. This task is not easy.
. (او) (u) zud mariz šod. She quickly became ill.
. mas'ale xeili saxt be nazar

من چنين اقدامي را لازم شمردم. man conin eqdāmi rā lāzem šomordam. I considered such a measure necessary.

mi āyad. The problem seems very difficult.

In a sentence of this kind, the adjective may qualify a noun or a pronoun (see 4/1), including an implied pronoun.

# 8. Attributive adjectives

An adjective not used as a complement (see 3/7 above) is said to be *attributive*; in the English expression 'a good book' the adjective 'good' is used attributively. An attributive adjective always qualifies a noun, not a pronoun (see 4/1). In English an attributive adjective usually precedes its noun; in Persian it almost always follows its noun. When the noun is used in its basic form (i.e. without the indefinite suffix 3/2 above), it carries the suffix called the *ezāfe*, explained in Appendix II. Examine:

ketābe xub a/the good book

ketābhāye xub (the) good books

eqdāme fouri an/the urgent measure

miveye tāze (the) fresh fruit

sandaliye carmi a/the leather chair

pāruye āhani an/the iron spade

The *ezāfe* is printed bold in the transcription of these examples; it does not carry any stress, nor does it affect the stress of the word. More than one adjective may be used in this manner, each element in the structure being linked to the next with the *ezāfe*:

xāneye bozorge nou a/the big new house خانهٔ بزرگ نو

pāruye kohneye āhani a/the old iron spade
The structure of noun + adjective is usually understood as either definite or indefinite, according to context. If indefiniteness is emphasised, then one of two devices is used:

• The indefinite suffix .... is added to the adjective (or the last adjective if there are more than one). If the adjective already ends in ....-i nothing is added:

ketābe xubi some good book کتاب خوبی تفریی برگ نویی xāneye bozorge noui some big new house صندلی چرمی sandaliye carmi some leather chair

The indefinite suffix ¿... is added to the noun, with no ezāfe:

ketābi xub some good book كتابى خوب xānei kucek some small house

With this form, we link a series of adjectives with

pronounced o, or with ezāfe:

xānei bozorg o qašang خانه ای بزرگ و قشنگ some beautiful big house pārui kohneye āhani some old iron spade

**Direct object.** When appropriate, the noun-and-adjective expression takes the direct-object suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  (see 3/3). The suffix is added after the whole expression:

farhange fārsi rā gom karde am. I have lost the Persian dictionary.

آن دفتر کوچكرا کجا گذاشتید؟ ān daftare kucek rā kojā gozaštid? Where did you put that small notebook?

**Adverbs with adjectives**. An adverb (see 7/1) modifying an attributive adjective precedes the adjective. It is one of the few things permitted to interrupt the *ezāfe*:

مرد بسیار بلند marde besyār boland the very tall man مرد بسیار بلندی marde besyār bolandi a/some very tall man

jomleye kami kutāh
a/the somewhat short sentence
camedānhāye xeili sangin
the very heavy suitcases

Preceding adjective. The adjective پیر pir 'old' (of people) usually precedes the nouns مرد and 'man' and زن zan 'woman', with no ezafe:

پیر مرد ، پیر زن pir mard, pir zan old man, old woman

# 9. Comparative adjectives

The comparative form of the adjective ('bigger', 'more beautiful') is made by suffixing  $\dots$  -tár (which takes the stress of the word) to the so-called *positive* or basic form of the adjective. The suffix is joined to the adjective in writing if this is possible:

bozórg big بزرگ بزرگتر bozorgtár bigger qašang beautiful قشنگ qašangtár more beautiful bolánd tall, high بلند bolandtár taller, higher بلندتر kutāhtár shorter کو تاھتر kutāh short کو تاہ kucék small کوچك kucektár smaller کو چکتر badtár worse بدتر بد bad bad gerấn expensive bad bad بد gerāntár more expensive گرانتر arzán cheap ارزان arzāntár cheaper ارزانتر tāzetár fresher تازه تر tāzé fresh تازه

A few comparative forms are irregular in that they do not use the common positive form as a base:

بهتر behtár better بهتر bištár more (also زیاد ziād much بیشتر bištár more (also زیاد ziādtar)

The form بیش biš 'more' is also found, as is (in literature) the form beh 'better'.

Like most adjectives shown in this chapter, the ones listed above are simple adjectives, i.e. not derived from another word or form.

The rule for making comparatives applies also to many derived and compound adjectives as well, where the meaning permits it:

bāhuštár more intelligent باهوش bāhuštár more intelligent باهوش bāhuštár more intelligent باهوش jahāndidetar experienced more experienced

Derived and compound adjectives are studied in 11/3.

The comparative adjective follows all the rules of the basic or positive adjective when used with a noun (3/7 and 3/8 above), except that by its nature the comparative has indefinite meaning:

in šahr hozorg ast. This town is big.
این شهر بزرگ است.
قم šahr hozorgtar ast. That town is bigger.

šahre bozorg the big town

šahre bozorgtar a bigger town

šahre bozorgtar a more beautiful photograph

ketābe arzāntar a cheaper book

With a comparative, 'than' is either از az or تا az or از tā:

• نا az is by far the commoner of the two. It is used before a noun or pronoun (4/1, 2, 4), with the verb بودن hudan 'to be', and with any other verb when that verb follows:

ارزانتر از آن یکی است. arzāntar az ān yeki st. It is cheaper than that one

u javāntar az man ast.

He/She is younger than I/me.

A phrase with jcan follow the comparative or precede it:

in arzāntar az ān ast. این ارزانتر از آن است.
in az ān arzāntar ast. این از آن ارزانتر است.
This is cheaper than that.

yek kucektar az in bedeh. على يك كوچكتر از اين بده\*. yeki az in kucektar bedeh. Give (me) a smaller one than this.

\* In this word, final b is part of the root, and therefore pronounced h. See 1/15.

• ك tā is used otherwise, i.e. when the next word is neither noun nor pronoun, or when a verb other than بودن precedes.

This structure is less common:

. به شما بیشتر دادند تا به ما be šomā bištar dādand tā be mā. They gave (to) you more than (to) us.

We also find certain adverbs (see 7/1, 2) used with a comparative. The adverb precedes the adjective, interrupting an *ezāfe* where appropriate. Examples of such adverbs are:

لمي xeili much كمي kami a little كمي (be) qadri somewhat سبتاً nesbatan relatively خيلى زيادتر پرداخت. xeili ziādtar pardāxt.

She paid much more.

kami pahntar hud. It was a little broader. کمی پهنتر بود. \*\*. in ebārat xeili roušantar ast ‹e›\*. This expression is much clearer.

ajnāse nesbatan gerāntar relatively more expensive goods \* colloquial pronunciation, see 2/6.

as ... as possible. The idiom 'as ... as possible' is expressed in Persian with <u>هر چه + the comparative</u>, التر har ce -tar. This formula is most commonly used for adverbs (see 7/3) but is also found with adjectives:

sanduq bāyad har ce bozorgtar صندوق باید هر چه بزرگتر باشد. bāšad. The box must be as big as possible.

**Equal comparison.** Equal comparison is expressed with an abstract noun to represent the adjective, and the *ezāfe*, using the formula shown below:

in he tondíye ān ast ‹e›.

This is as fast as that. ('This is to the speed of that.')

yek mix he tule ān pic hedehid.

Give me a nail as long as that screw.

be sanginiye ān yeki nist.
It isn't as heavy as that one.

... -i. 11/2 shows the formation of abstract nouns with

# 10. Superlative adjectives

بزرگترین bozorgtár bigger بزرگترین bozorgtár bigger بزرگترین mofidtár more useful مفیدترین mofidtár more useful most useful roušantár clearer روشنترین roušantár clearest moškeltár more difficult most difficult most difficult bištár more bištarín most kamtár less bozorgtarín biggest biczorgtarín biggest mofidtarín most useful moskeltarín most difficult

This applies to most compound and derived adjectives (see 11/3) whose meaning permits it, also:

ولتمندتر doulatmandtár wealthier دولتمندترين doulatmandtarín wealthiest

The superlative adjective and its noun are definite in meaning.

When used attributively, the superlative is accompanied by its noun, which it always precedes, with no *ezāfe* (see 3/8 above):

bozorgtarin arteš the biggest army بزرگترین ارتش mofidtarin pišnehād the most useful proposal مفیدترین پیشنهاد in vāzehtarin jadval ast.

This is the clearest table.

ما قشنگترین شهرهای ایران را دیده ایم. mā qašangtarin šahrhāye irān rā dide im.

We have seen the most beautiful cities of Iran.

We can use the superlative in attributive use without a noun, but only with singular meaning:

. ارزانترین را ببینیم arzāntarin/‹arzuntarin› rā bebinim. Let's see the cheapest one.

and note the structure <u>superlative</u>  $+ ez\bar{a}fe + plural noun$ , in which the superlative again has singular meaning:

mofidtarine pišnehādhā
the most useful (one) of the proposals
moškeltarine hesābhā
the most difficult of the calculations

When the superlative is used as a complement (3/7 above), it is expressed with the comparative plus از همه az hame 'than all'. Compare the attributive and complementary uses:

in tambaltarin javān bud.

This was the laziest youth.

This was the laziest youth.

in javān tambaltar az hame bud.

This youth was the laziest ('lazier than all').

This youth was the laziest ('lazier than all').

inhā gerāntarin faršhā

hastand. These are the most expensive carpets.

in faršhā az hame gerāntarand.

These carpets are the most expensive.

# 11. Possessive adjectives

Possessive adjectives ('my', 'your' etc.) are expressed in two ways in Persian.

With a personal pronoun. One way is to put the appropriate personal pronoun (see 4/2) after the possessed noun, connecting with the *ezāfe* (3/5 above, also Appendix II):

لار من kāre man my work ('the work of me') خانهٔ اوست. خانهٔ اوست. خانهٔ اوست. مشین شما کجاست؟ مشین شما کجاست؟ dustān va došmanhāye mā our friends and enemies

The last example given above shows that the term 'possessive' used here covers also other associations, as it does in the *possessive* 

(noun) structure.

These examples are definite. An indefinite possessive is expressed with يكى از yeki az 'one of', followed by the noun in the plural, as in English:

With a suffix. The other way is to add to the noun the appropriate possessive adjective suffix:

<u>Persons</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st	<i>am</i> my	<i>emān</i> our <i>emān</i>
2nd	et (-at) your	<i>etān</i> your تان
3rd	eš (-aš) his/her/itseš	ešān theirešān

These suffixes do not affect the stress of the noun.

The pronunciations -at and -as are the literary pronunciations, increasingly replaced now by the originally colloquial forms -et and -es.

The suffixes are added in this form to a noun ending in a consonant or  $\mathcal{L}$  -i

كارتان káretān your work كارتان káretān your work مندليم sandalíam my chair مندليم kaštíešān their boat After a vowel أَ a or و سي...-y- is added before the suffix: و pārúyeš his spade After silent final ه the singular forms are written with initial alef and pronounced with -a-; the plural forms lose their initial e in pronunciation:

When the possessed noun has an attributive adjective (3/8 above); the possessive expression (of whichever kind) follows the adjective:

my Persian book کتاب فارسی من ketābe fārsiye man ختاب فارسیم من من ketābe fārsiam مرزگار سابق او āmuzgāre sābeqe u schoolteacher

The direct-object suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  (3/3 above), when needed, is added after the whole possessive expression, whichever kind is used. [man +  $r\bar{a}$ ] becomes مرا مرا  $m\acute{a}r\ddot{a}$ , [to +  $r\ddot{a}$ ] becomes ثرا tó $r\ddot{a}$  (we also encounter the spelling تورا ):

قبول غی کنیم. šekāyate u rā qabul nemi konim.

We are not accepting his complaint.

xāneye marā xaridand.
They bought my house.

ماشین ترا کجا پارك کرده اند؟ māšine torā kojā pārk karde and? Where have they parked your car?

ketābe u rā farāmuš kardam. كتاب او را فراموش كردم. ketābeš rā farāmuš kardam. l forgot his book.

ketābe fārsiye šomā rā مارسى شما را نديده ام. nadide am.

ل ندیده ام. ketābe fārsietān rā nadide am. ا المنتان را ندیده ام. I have not seen your Persian book.

In general, the two possessive expressions are equally correct alternatives. However, we cannot use the first possessive expression ( $ez\bar{a}fe + pronoun$ ) when the subject of the verb (4/2, 5/4) and the possessor of the noun are the same. In such a sentence the suffix form must be used for the possessive:

ketābam rā be išān dādam.
(not: [... | كتاب مرا به ايشان\* دادم.
) I gave ('to') him/her/them my book.
شقنت را كجا پارك كرده اى؟

Where have you parked your car?

نامه را به خانواده اش فرستاد. nāme rā be xānevādeaš ferestād. He/She sent the letter to his/her family.

<sup>\*</sup> polite speech, see 12/2.

Where the identity of the possessor is obvious, it is common, especially in speech, to omit the possessive completely:

نامه را به خانواده فرستاد. nāme rā be xānevāde ferestād.

He/She sent the letter to (his/her) family.

in faqat barāye dustān ast.
This is only for (my) friends.

Emphatic forms. Two possessive forms exist which are used for emphasis. The first is ... مال تو māle man, māle to (etc.) (from the noun مال من، مال تو māl 'property'), which is placed after the possessed noun with a connecting ezāfe:

ketābe māle šomā rā gereft. She took your book.

. كلاه مال من اينجاست. kolāhe male man injāst. My hat's here. See 4/5 for مال māle in sentences such as 'Mine is ...', 'It's mine/yours' (etc.).

The second emphatic form is the use of the pronoun خود xod 'oneself' in place of من، تو man, to (etc.) after the ezāfe. Because of its meaning, this form is used only when the subject of the verb and the possessor of the noun are the same. In speech it is usual to add the possessive suffix as well:

ketābe xod(am) rā be išān كتاب خود (م) را به ايشان دادم. dādam.l gave him/her my/my own book.

In literary Persian the use of خود for the possessive is obligatory when both the subject of the verb and the possessor of the noun are the same 3rd person (او، آن، ایشان، آنها). In this usage there is no emphatic meaning:

ketābe xod rā be man dād. He gave me his book.

لاه خود را گم کرده است. kolāhe xod rā gom karde ast. He has lost his hat.

kolāhe u rā in these sentences would mean 'someone else's book', 'someone else's

hať).

But in modern everyday style, and in speech, the 3rd-person suffixed form

ketābeš rā be man dād. كتابش را به من داد. kolāhes rā gom karde ast.

is necessary only when emphasis is required.

Literary Persian also has the word خویش xiš which can be used instead of خود in all contexts.

See 1/13 for the pronunciation of خويش and خود , and see 4/8 for خود as a pronoun.



<u>šahre bame bāstān</u>
The ancient city of Bam

# 12. Demonstrative adjectives

The demonstrative adjectives ('this', 'that' etc.) are:

in this, these آن ān that, those

همين hámin this/these very همان hámān that/those very

conān such (a), ... like this چنان conān such (a), ... like that

These words precede the noun or noun expression which they qualify, without *ezāfe* (see 3/8):

āyā in šaxs rā mi šenāsid? آیا این شخص را می شناسید؟ ?Do you know this person

ān sāxtemānhāye bozorg آن ساختمانهای بزرگ those big buildings

ممان ترجمه است. hámān tarjome ast. It is that very translation.

ق أن افسرها را غي شناسم. ān afsarhā rā nemi šednāsam. I don't know those officers

in nāme rā dide id? این نامه را دیده اید؟

Have you seen this letter?

چنین اسبهای قشنگی تا حالا دیده اید؟

conin asbhāye qašangi tā hālā dide id? Have you ever ('till now') seen such beautiful horses?

is also the commonest way to express 'the same'; in this meaning it loses its connotation 'this':

همين كتاب را خريد. He bought the same book.

Note that the stress on both همان hámin and همان hámān falls on

# 13. Interrogative adjectives

Important interrogative adjectives are:

ce what چه ce what کدام دم ki whose چند خطور\چگونه\چه جور\چه نوع دونسر, cegune, ce jur, ce nou' what kind of

These are used as follows:

All of them except 
 ki precede the noun which they qualify, without ezāfe (see 3/8):

\*... kodām ketāb...? which book...?

چطور\چکونه\چه جور\چه نوع شخصی است؟ cetour/cegune/ce jur/ce nou' šaxsi st?

What kind of a person is she?

\* kodām āmuzgār intour goft كدام آموزگار اينطور گفت؟ Which teacher said so?

kodām tārix rā bištar كدام تاريخ را بيشتر دوست داريد؟ dust dārid? Which date do you prefer?

\*kodām jenshā rā meil dārid كدام جنسها را ميل داريد Which kinds would you like المريد المريد

Note also کدام یکی «kodum» yeki 'which one', very common in speech.

See the remark at the end of this paragraph.

ce mostly means 'what' (of an unlimited or unkown group) and in this meaning its noun or noun expression always carries the indefinite suffix ...:

emšab ce filmi hast? امشب چه فیلمی هست؟ What film is there tonight?

يد و دو ketābhāi az hame رند؟ دو ketābhāi az hame mofīdtarand? What books are most useful?

When the noun is the direct object of a verb, and its identity is known to one party, it is deemed to be definite and therefore also takes the direct-object suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$ :

ce cizhāye mofidi rā چد چیزهای مفیدی را خریدید؟ xaridid? What useful things did you buy?

See the remark at the end of this paragraph.

• ki meaning 'whose' follows its noun in the same way as a possessive adjective (3/11 above), with ezāfe:

پروندهٔ کی را گرفتید؟ parvandeye ki rā gereftid? Whose file did you take?

In everyday Persian we may find مال كى māle ki for 'whose', when emphasis is required:

# پروندهٔ مال کی را گرفتید؟

• عند cand 'how much/many' is always followed by a singular noun, which has the definite form but is seen as indefinite. If the noun is concrete and 'countable' (i.e. is tangible, and consists of separable units and not a mass), it is usual in modern Persian to add نفر nafar for people and tā for anything else:

cand vaqt māndand?
How long ('how much time') did they stay?

stand nafar mehmān mi āyand?
How many guests are coming?

cand tā bošqāb bord?
How many plates did he take?

... که ام که cand martabe gofte am ke ... How many times have I said that ...

From this last example we can see that the term 'interrogative' covers also rhetorical questions.

with no further noun also means 'how many people', and چند تا with no further noun means 'how many (of the things already mentioned)':

? جند نفر را شمردید cand nafar rā šomordid? How many people did you count?

? جند تا برد cand tā hord? How many did he take? Everyday Persian often uses تا tā for people and for things:

?cand tā mehmān mi āyand چند تا مهمان می آیند

• چطور، چه نوع cetour, cegune, ce jur, ce nou' 'what kind of': the noun following one of these adjectives carries the indefinite ....-i:

? جطور گزارشی بود؟ What kind of report was it?

It is important to differentiate between \$\&\ceim kod\bar{a}m\$ 'which' and \$\&\ceim ce\$ 'what' described above:

? *kodām ketāb rā mi xānid?* Which book (of a known selection) are you reading?

and: چه کتابی را می خوانید؟ ce ketābi rā mi xānid?

What book (of all the books there are) are you reading?

# 14. Distributive adjectives

The main distributive adjectives are:

tamām all, the whole of همه hame all, all of .

ba'zi some بعضى ba'zi some

candin several چندین cand some, a few

چند نفر cand nafar some (people) چند نفر hic + negative verb no

These adjectives are used as follows:

• منه tamām, همه hame all. With a singular noun, the noun tamām 'whole', and with a plural noun the pronoun hame 'all', are used in possessive structure (3/5 above) to mean 'all (of)':

tamāme pul rā gereft.

He took all (of) the money.

hameye mehmānhā raftand. All the guests went.

• har every, each. This adjective precedes its noun without ezāfe:

har šāgerd barnāmei rā هر شاگرد برنامه ای را دارد. dārad. Every pupil has a programme.

The expression هر یکی har yeki 'each one' is common in speech:

har yeki az onhā هر يكي از آنها وظيفداي را دارد. vazifei rā dāre. Each one of them has a task.

See 9/2 for so used with numbers.

• بعضي ba'zi some. This is used with plural nouns:

ba'zi ašxās some people بعضي اشخاص ba'zi ouqāt/vaqthā بعضي اوقات اوقتها (on) some occasions, sometimes

• چند رandin several چند رand some, a few. These precede their noun, which stands in the singular, despite the plural meaning. There is no ezāfe:

candin mehmān several guests چندین مهمان .candin ruz mānde and چندین روز مانده اند They stayed several days.

cand hafte tul kašid. چند هفته طول کشید. It lasted a few weeks.

نفر it is common to put چند See 3/13, fifth indent. After nafar before a noun denoting people, and 🗸 tā before a noun denoting anything else:

برای امشب چند نفر مهمان دعوت کرده ایم. barāye emšab cand nafar mehmān da'vat karde im.

For this evening we have invited a few guests.

cand (tā) ketāb some/a few books چند noun, including one denoting people:

- cand tā mosāfer šekāyat چند تا مسافر شكايت مي كنند. mi konand. Some/A few passengers are complaining.
- هیچ hic no. We use either هیچ , or the indefinite suffix هیچ -i (3/2 above), with a negative verb, to express 'no' in either statements or questions:

hic mehmān nemi āyad. مهمان غيى آيد. No guest mehmāni nemi āyad. is coming.

### 3 - Nouns and Adjectives

hic mehmān nayumade?› هیچ مهمان نیامده؟ «mehmāni nayumade?» مهمانی نیامده؟
Has no guest come?

by the indefinite  $\omega$ ... -i:

hic forsat nadāštim. We had no chance forsati nadāštim. In literary usage only, هيچ فرصتى نداشتيم. expresses 'any' in non-negative questions; see also 4/10. In everyday Persian it is replaced

قکآیتی هست؟
sekāyati hast?
Is there any complaint?
digari hast? Is there any other?

## 4. Pronouns

#### 1. General

The customary definition of a pronoun is that it is a word replacing a noun whose identity is known. In fact this is true only of 3rd-person pronouns such as 'he', 'she', 'it' (etc.). For the 1st-and 2nd-person pronouns 'l', 'we' and 'you' and their Persian equivalents there is no corresponding noun; the pronoun is the only expression available.

### 2. Subject pronouns

The subject of a verb is that person, creature or thing which performs the action or experiences the situation indicated by the verb. The pronouns denoting the subject of the verb are:

<u>Persons</u>	Singular	Plural
1st	ا man من	ما mā we
2nd	<i>to</i> you	<i>šomā</i> you
3rd	u he/she او	išān they (people)
	آن $ar{a}n$ it	أنها ānhā they
		(people/things)

## Several things to note:

- There is no grammatical gender (masculine, feminine) in
   Persian; u means 'he' or 'she' depending on the context.
- For 'you', the singular form is used to address a person to whom one is very close indeed; for any other person the plural form is used. The use of is more restricted than that of its apparent European counterparts 'tu', 'du', 'tu' or 'ты'.

To an animal or a small child also, we say تو ; to all groups, close or not, we say شما .

The form آنها ānhā is used for 'they' referring to any plural -

people, creatures, places, things, ideas. The plural form  $i\bar{s}\bar{a}n$  'they' is now used as a polite form (12/2) for 'he', 'she', or 'they' for people only:

išān ce farmudand\*? ایشان چه فرمودند؟
What did he/she/they say ('command')?

 These pronouns can be used as they are to denote the subject of the verb but since the verb clearly shows the person of the subject, the pronoun is usually added only for emphasis or extra clarity; or it may form a one-word answer identifying the subject:

- Official and newspaper Persian also has the pronoun vei for 'he/she'.
- \* Polite verb form, see 12/4.
- \*\* Colloquial pronunciation, see 2/6.

### 3. Direct-object pronouns

The direct object of a verb is that party directly affected by the action of the verb. Persian has two groups of direct-object pronouns:

• the first group, more common, is derived from the subject pronouns by adding the direct-object suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  (3/3):

Person	s Si	<u>ngular</u>	Ph	<u>ıral</u>
1st	مرا	marā me	ما را	<i>mā rā</i> us
2nd	ترا	torā you	شما را	<i>šomā rā</i> you
3rd	او را	$u r \bar{a}$ him/her	ايشانرا	išān rā them (people)
	آنرا	ān rā it	آنها را	ānhā rā them
			(p	people/things)

Note the special forms أمرا marā and ترا torā; the latter can also be written in full, تورا . We also encounter the joined forms آنرا and آنرا , though these are now discouraged.

Each pronoun has the same connotation of person(s) or thing(s) as its subject counterpart shown in 4/2 above:

قمارا ندیدم. *šomā rā nadidam.* I didn't see you (one or more).

. آنها را ندیدم ānhā rā nadidam. I didn't see them (people/things).

išān rā nadidam. I didn't see him/her/them (people).

• the second group, used mainly in everyday speech, consists of suffixes which are identical to the possessive-adjective suffixes shown in 3/11 (.... -am, .... -et (-at), .... -eš (-aš) etc.). They are attached to the verb in the same way as the possessives are attached to the noun, and are unstressed. They do not need or take the direct-object suffix . The 3rd-person suffixes are the commonest in use:

منديدمش. I didn't see him/her/it. گرفتمشان. geréftamešān. I took them.

When used with a compound verb (5/29), the suffix is attached to the non-verbal element:

āheste bāzeš kard. He opened it slowly. آهسته بازش کرد. biruneš kon! Throw it out!

A pronoun which is the direct object of an infinitive (which is always a long infinitive, see 5/2) is attached to it in the manner of a possessive adjective (3/11), i.e. with  $ez\bar{a}fe$ :

از دیدن او تعجب کردم. I was surprised to see ('at the seeing of') him.

ا was surpnseu روی نمی کنیم. پیش از رسیدن آنها شروع نمی کنیم.

piš az rasidane ānhā šoru nemi konim.

We shall not begin before they arrive ('before their arrival').

### 4. Prepositions with pronouns

Prepositions are defined and explained in Chapter 6. The pronouns used after prepositions fall into two groups:

 the first group is identical to the subject pronouns shown in 4/2 above. The prepositions precede the pronoun in the same way as they precede nouns, subject to the same rules (ezāfe/no ezāfe etc.):

به من به من az u from him/her از او barāye šomā for you براي شما beine ānhā between them بين آنها bā mā with us با ما bedune šomā without you dar ān in it

piše išān towards him/her/them

• the second group consists of suffixes which are identical to the possessive-adjective suffixes shown in 3/11 (-...-am, -am, -et (-at), -eš (-aš) etc.). The suffixes are attached only to the prepositions which have an ezāfe before a noun; the ezāfe is dropped, and if two vowels come together as a result they are separated by -y-:

اخلش مرايم barāyam for me برايم ruyešān on them رويشان be jāyetān instead of you به جايتان jelouyeš before it pišešān towards him/her/them

We have also the following common but unwritten colloquial 3rd-person forms, with prepositions not carrying the *ezāfe*:

<beš/bešān> to him/her/it/them

<aze\$/aze\$ān> from him/her/it/them
<br/>
<br/>
<br/>
be\$ begam ci?> What am I to say to him/her?

### 5. Possessive pronouns

The possessive pronouns ('mine', 'yours', 'his', 'hers' etc.) are made by putting  $\lim male$  before the subject pronouns. This is the same structure as that used for emphatic possessive adjectives (3/11), but whereas the possessive adjective is accompanied by a noun, the possessive pronoun is not, since it replaces the noun:

مال من است.

māle man ast ‹e›\*. It's mine.

māle šomā behtar ast ‹e›. Yours is better.

cerā māle mā rā bordand?

Why did they take ours?

\* Colloquial pronunciation, see 2/6.

The possessive with wale may also be put before a possessor noun (including a proper name), whereupon it corresponds to the English possessive expressed with 's or with a phrase such as 'that of' or 'those of'. The 'possessed' noun is not expressed but left implicit:

# حكايتتان مضحكتر از مال فروشنده است.

hekāyatetān mozhektar az māle forušande ast.

Your story is funnier than the salesman's/that of the salesman.

ماشین مال تو نیست، مال شرکت است. māšin māle to nist, māle šerkat ‹e›. The car isn't yours, it's the company's.

گزارشتان را خواندم ولی برای مال رضا وقت نداشتم. gozārešetān rā xāndam vali harāye māle rezā vaqt nadāštam. I have read your report but I didn't have the time for Reza's.

## 6. Demonstrative pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns are:

in this آن ān that این inhā these آن

Unlike the demonstrative adjectives (3/12), اَن and اَن used as pronouns are made plural where appropriate. You will note that and are respectively identical to the subject pronouns for 'it' and 'they'.

in ruznāmeye diruz ast ‹e›.
This is yesterday's newspaper.

inhā behtarin afsarhāyemān اینها بهترین افسرهایان هستند.
hastand. These are our best officers.

از اینها ارزانتر نداریم. az inhā arzāntar nadārim.
We have none ('not') cheaper than these.

The demonstrative adjective هين hámin (NB stress) can also stand as a pronoun, i.e. without a noun:

همين نيست. hámin nist. It isn't the same.
مین نیست. hamin rā xāstand. They asked for just this.

### 7. Interrogative pronouns

Common interrogative pronouns are:

دو ﴿ ki/ke who چه دe ﴿ ce ﴿ ci› what مال کی اکه māle ki whose

Several things to note:

• The interrogative pronouns ask questions:

امد؟ ki āmad ‹umad›? Who came?
د شد؟ ce šod? What happened ('became')?

They should not be confused with other pronoun forms expressed with the same word in English (e.g. 'the man who said this ...', for which see 8/6).

- Of the two words for 'who', & ke is used only in writing.
- The interrogative pronoun most commonly stands next to the verb (see also 8/2):

? رضا چه گفت؟ rezā ce ‹ci› goft? What did Reza say? آنوقت معلمتان کی بود؟ ānvaqt moʾallemetān ki bud?

At that time who was your teacher?

(This is similar to the structure called in this book 'topic and comment', explored more fully in 8/14.)

• من and چه followed by است 'is' become چه kist 'who is' and عبد cist 'what is', each written as one word. Possible colloquial pronunciations are ‹ki e› and ‹ci e›:

آن شخص کیست؟ قم šaxs kist? Who is that person? این کیف مال کیست؟ in kif māle kist? Whose is this bag? این سند چیست؟ What is this document?

The forms کی است kist/ki ast and چه است ce ast are also found.

See 4/5 for a fuller explanation of مال māle, and 3/11 for the adjectival use of مال كي māle ki.

The pronouns can be preceded by a preposition (4/4 above), and all but عبه are followed by the direct-object suffix ارا (3/3) when appropriate عدا becomes کرا (3/3) when appropriate (عدا الله عدا الله عدا

! in rā az ki gereftid كى گرفتيد Mho did you get this from ('From whom...')?

rāje be ce sohbat mi kard? What did he talk about?

ki rā da'vat kardand?

Whom did they invite?

## xod خود . 8

The pronoun خود xod 'oneself' (see 1/13 concerning the pronunciation) is used in everyday speech with pronoun suffixes. These suffixes are the same as the possessive-adjective suffixes shown in 3/11. In written Persian خود is mainly used without suffixes. With or without suffixes,

### pronoun:

• Emphatic:

xod(eš) āntour goft. خود (ش) آنطور گفت. He said so himself.

xod(am) nemi dānam خود (م) غی دانم. منابع دانم. Myself, I don't know.

and literary Persian has خود followed by the *ezāfe* in, for example:

- . خود او بود xode u bud. It was he himself/she herself.
- Reflexive (i.e. returning to the subject):

xod(eš) rā dānā mi šomorad. He thinks ('counts') himself knowledgeable.

... barāye xod(eš) fekr kard ... He thought to ('for') himself ...

باید از خود (تان) دفاع کنید. bāyad az xod(etān)

defāʾ konid. You must defend yourself.

## 9. Reciprocal pronouns

The commonest reciprocal pronouns, both meaning 'each other', are:

المديگر yekdigar yekdige محديگر hamdigar hamdige They can take a direct-object suffix را  $r\bar{a}$  (3/3), a preposition (4/4 above), or be attached in possessive structure with an  $ez\bar{a}fe$  (3/11) as appropriate:

hamdigar rā dust nadāštand. They did not like each other.

باً همدیگر خوب همکاری می کنیم. bā hamdigar xub hamkāri mikonim. We cooperate well ('with each other').

نام یکدیگر را پیشنهاد کرده اند. nāme yekdigar rā pišnehād karde and. They have proposed one another's names.

## 10. Distributive pronouns

The main distributive pronouns are:

har kas(i) everyone همه hame all هر کس\کسی har ciz(i)/hame ciz/hamaš هر چیز(ی)\همه چیز\همهاش everything

\* kasi anyone/no one میچ چیزی cizi anything/nothing میچکس hickas no one میچکس hic ciz nothing میچکدام hickodām none میچکدام hickodām none میچکدام ba'zi hā some ba'zi hā some (of people) خیزی دراو دراوی د

The distributive pronouns are used as follows:

هر کسی ه har kas(i) everyone,
 هر چیز (ع) har ciz(i)/hame ciz/hamaš everything.

These pronouns are all singular:

هر کس\هر ان را می داند. har kas(i) ān rā mi dānad. Everyone knows that.

المد السرا برد. hame ciz(i)/ همه چيز همه السرا برد. har ciz/hamaš rā bord. He/She took everything.

hamaš (NB pronunciation) is also used in its literal meaning 'all of it':

الله الله الله hamaš xarāb šod. All of it was spoilt. (د) همه (عير) «everyone' and عير الهمه الله 'everything' are also used in affirmative statements to express 'anyone' and anything' respectively:

مر کس\هر کسی می تواند آنطور بگوید. har kas(i) mi tavānad āntour beguyad. Anybody can say that ('thus').

emruze har ciz(i) momken امروزه هر چیز (ی) محکن است. ast <e>. Nowadays anything ('everything') is possible.

hame all. This is a plural pronoun referring to people,

<sup>\*</sup> with a negative verb

with no noun:

hame raftand. All went.

المى شناسم. hame rā mi šenāsam. I know (them) all. It takes ezāfe before another pronoun:

az tarafe hameye mā on behalf of all of us

• کس kasi anyone, چیزی cizi anything. In a non-negative question the indefinite nouns کسی kasi "a person' and 'anything' cizi 'a thing' can mean 'anyone' and 'anything' respectively:

āyā kasi telefon kard? آیا کسی تلفن کرد؟ Did anyone ring up?

يزى گفت؟ cizi goft? Did he/she say anything? With a negative verb, they mean 'no one' and 'nothing' respectively:

• هیچکدام hickas no one, هیچ چیز hic ciz nothing, هیچکدام hickodām none, هیچکداه or question, these pronouns are used with a negative verb to express 'no' or 'no-' and 'none'. In this usage, the first two are alternatives to کسی kasi and چیزی cizi respectively:

. کسی \هیچکس تلفن نکرد . kasi/hickas telefon nakard. No one rang up.

. جيزى\هيچ چيز ننوشتم. I wrote nothing.

آیا هیچکدام غی آید؟ قیم ayā hickodām nemi āyad? Is none (of them) coming?

In colloquial speech, هیچی مhici› can replace هیچ چیز hici ciz or چیزی cizi:

.hici naneveštam هیچی ننوشتم.

میچی بہتر پیدا غی کنید. خhici behtar peidā nemi konid.>
You won't find any(thing) better.

Note also the short negative answers in everyday language with عيم

ki telefon kard? - hickas. Who telephoned? - Nobody.

کدام دکتر را دیدید؟ – هیچکدام. kodām ‹kodum› doktor rā didid? - hickodām ‹hickodum›.

Which doctor did you see? - None.

جه فرمودید\*؟ − هیچ چیز\هیچی. ce farmudid? - hic ciz/hici. What did you say? - Nothing. \* Polite speech, see 12/4.

- بعضى ها ba'zi hā some, ابعضى ba'zi az some of. These are indefinite and plural. In بعضى ها the plural suffix is usually written separately:
  - ba'zi hā dir rasidand. ابعضى ها دير رسيدند. Some arrived late.

. بعضى ها را نمى شناسم ba'zi hā rā nemi šenāsam.

There are some I don't know. ('I don't know some'.)

ba'zi hā šekāyat kardand. Some complained.

. بعضى از آنها خراب شدند. ba'zi az ānhā xarāb šodand. Some of them got spoiled.

• خیلی از ziād much, many, a lot, خیلی از xeili az many of, کم کمی kam/kami (a) little, (a) few. These pronouns are all indefinite, singular or plural as the meaning dictates:

چه می گویید که کمی دارید؟ زیاد دارید.

«ce mi gid ke kami dārid? ziād dārid.».

What are you saying, you've got a little? You've got a lot.

. کمی مانده است. kami mānde ast. A little has remained.

xeili az ānhā raftand. Many of them went.

• چند تا cand nafar some (of people), چند تا cand tā some (of things). These adjectival expressions (3/14) can also be regarded and used as pronouns:

cand nafar qāyeb hastand. Some are absent.

cand tā foruxtand. They sold some.

## 5. Verbs

#### 1. General

A verb is that class of word which denotes an action or situation:

tond <u>david</u>. He/She <u>ran</u> fast.

xošhāl <u>budim</u>. We <u>were</u> happy.

<u>nemi tavānad</u> ān rā <u>peidā konad</u>.

He/She <u>cannot find</u> it.

#### 2. Infinitive

The infinitive is the form of the verb by which it is referred to, and listed in a dictionary. Typical English infinitives are '(to) read' and '(to) run'; the particle 'to' is sometimes added, sometimes not. The Persian infinitive has no such particle.

Persian has two forms of the infinitive; the commoner one, used to identify the verb, is the *long* infinitive, which ends in عن...-dán or -tán. This ending takes the stress of the word (see 2/5):

خواندن , see 1/13) see 1/13 خواندن معنط davidán to run خواندن koštán to kill

The long infinitive is not only a 'label'. It is also used as a noun naming the activity:

برای بچهها خواندن آسان نیست. nist. Reading is not easy for children.

xāndan rā besyār dust dārad. She likes reading very much.

barāye xāndan vaqt nadāram. ابراى خواندن وقت ندارم.
I have no ('not') time for reading.

A long infinitive which has a direct object (5/6 below) is joined to it with  $ez\bar{a}fe$  (Appendix II):

برای خواندن روزنامه وقت ندارم.

barāye xāndane ruznāme vaqt nadāram. I have no time to read ('for the reading of') the newspaper.

. be didane ānhā raftim. We went to see them.

The *short* infinitive is the same as the long infinitive minus its final .... -an. It is stressed on its final syllable:

خواند xānd to read دوید davíd to run دوید košt to kill

The use of this form is examined in 5/19 and 27 below.

#### 3. Position of the verb

A verb other than an auxiliary verb (5/19 below) usually stands at the end of its sentence or clause (see 8/4 for the definition of a clause):

ketāb rā xāndam. I read the book.

أن دانشجورا مى شناسيد؟

ān dānešju rā mi šenāsid?

Do you know that student?

tond mi nevisad. He/She writes fast.

dokkān baste ast. The shop is closed.

mi tavānad tond bedavad.

He/She can run fast.

See 6/6 for an exception to this rule in colloquial language.

### 4. Agreement

A verb agrees with its *subject* (i.e. the person, creature or thing performing the action or experiencing the situation indicated by the verb) in *person* (1st, 2nd or 3rd) and in *number* (singular with singular, plural with plural). A pronoun subject (4/2) is often omitted when it is clear from the form of the verb:

(من) اینجا هستم. (من) (man) inja hastam. I am here. (من) اینجا هستم. «šomā kojā raftid? Where did you go? شما كجا رفتيد؟ «kojā bud? Where was he/she/it? كجا بود؟ نقق تقتم نقق المنان را خوب مى شناسيم. We know them well.

injā hastand. They are here.

#### But note:

In polite speech (see 12/2 and 3) the plural subject pronoun i ایشان išān has a plural verb even when used to express 'he' or 'she'; the same happens with a singular noun subject denoting a person:

išān balad hastand? ایشان بلد هستند؟ ls he/she informed?

? معلم چه فرموده اند mo'allem ce farmude and? What did the teacher say ('command')?

مدير امروز غايب هستند. modir emruz qāyeb hastand.
The director's away today.

 Earlier Persian often has a plural noun denoting things or ideas (not people) with a singular verb:

د کانها بسته بود . dokkānhā baste bud.

The shops were ('was') closed.

and this structure survives in some set expressions:

ouqāteš talx šod. He became angry. ('His times (plural) became (singular) bitter')

## 5. Simple and compound verbs

We distinguish between simple and compound verbs in Persian.

A simple verb is one whose infinitive (5/2 above) consists of one word:

بافتن fahmidan to understand بافتن bāftan to weave فهمیدن kardan to do dāštan to have رفتن raftan to go مُدن

A compound verb consists of a non-verbal part and a simple verb. Typical compound infinitives are:

کار کردن kār kardan to work کار کردن bar dāštan to remove بر داشتن az bein raftan to disappear بیش آمدن piš āmadan to occur

Compound verbs are examined in 5/29 and 30 below. Almost all the verbs described in 5/2 to 28 are simple verbs.

## 6. Government: subject, complement and object

All verbs have a subject (see 4/2 and 5/4 above):

. went. <u>sirus</u> raft. <u>Cyrus</u> went

ketābam injāst. My book is here.

We can however put Persian verbs into three broad types according to their relationship with other parts of the sentence:

verbs which have no object (i.e. no affected party other than the subject):

injā hast. He is here.

mordand. They died.

birun rafte ast. He/She has gone out.

Some verbs with no object have a complement, i.e. a further word or expression identifying or describing the subject:

barādaram āmuzgār ast. برادرم آموزگار است. My brother is a teacher.

hamkāram mariz šod. My colleague fell ('became') ill.

The complement is so called because it completes the meaning of the verb. Almost all verbs of being, seeming or becoming need a complement.

Complements most often take the form of a noun (3/1) or adjective (3/6).

verbs which have a direct object (i.e. a second party directly affected):

قَها را دیدم. ānhā rā didam. I saw them. nāmei nevešt. She wrote a letter.

in nevisande rā nemi šenāsim. We don't know this writer.

• verbs which have a prepositional object (i.e. a second party

affected, but preceded by a preposition, see 6/1):

از من پرسیدند. az man porsidand. They asked ('from') me.

راجع به وضع بين المللى نوشته است. rāje' be vaz'e beinolmelali nevešte ast.

He has written about the international situation.

In English, the prepositions 'to' and 'for' can often be omitted, making the object look like a direct object. In Persian the preposition cannot be omitted:

!be šomā ce dāde and به شما چه داده اند What did they give ('to') you?

برای پسر خود منزل ساخت. sāxt. He built ('for') his son a house.

A verb can have both a direct and a prepositional object:

? az ānhā ce porsid از آنها چه پرسید What did he ask them

(direct object for the person, prepositional object for the thing affected)

hadiye be dustān dādand. هديه به دوستان دادند.

They gave a present to (their) friends.

(direct object for the thing, prepositional object for the person affected)

The relationship of a verb to its complement or object (if any) is called its government. A Persian verb does not necessarily have the same government as its nearest English equivalent:

az kasi/az cizi tarsidan از کسی\از چیزی ترسیدن to fear ('from') somebody/something

(direct object in English, prepositional object with  $\int az$  in Persian)

Some verbs cause their direct object to perform the action. These are known as causative verbs. They are explained in 11/4.

#### 7. Tenses

A tense is that form of the verb which indicates the time or the

context in which the action or situation denoted by the verb occurs. Persian has four simple (i.e. one-word) tenses:

- Past, indicating a completed previous action or situation ('I did'), see 5/8, 9 below.
- Present, indicating a current or impending action or situation ('I do', 'I am doing'), see 5/10-12 below.
- Imperfect, indicating a continuous or repeated previous action or situation ('I was doing'), see 5/13, 14 below.
- Present subjunctive, indicating a possibility ('I may do'), see 5/16, 17 below.

and four common compound tenses (i.e. tenses formed with more than one word):

- Perfect ('I have done'), similar in meaning to the past tense, see 5/21, 22 below.
- Perfect subjunctive, indicating a previous possibility ('I may have done'), see 5/23, 24 below.
- Pluperfect, indicating one previous action or situation preceding another ('I had done'), see 5/25, 26 below.
- Future, indicating an action or situation occurring ahead ('I shall do'), see 5/27, 28 below.

## 8. Forming the past tense

We form the past tense ('I did') with the

## past stem + past personal endings

**Past stem.** The past stem is easy to form. We remove the final ن... -an from the long infinitive (5/2 above):

	<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Past</u>	: stem
	xāndan to read	خواند	xānd- (silent • , 1/13)
آمدن	$\bar{a}madan$ to come	آمد	āmad-
بودن	budan to be	بود	bud-
كشتن	koštan to kill	کشتـ	košt-

raftan to go رفتن raftan to go رفتن sāxtan to make ساختن sāxtan to make مساختن sāxtan and so on for all verbs in the language.

Personal endings. The personal endings of the past tense are:

<u>Persons</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st	-am ا	<i>im</i> we <i>ن</i> م
2nd	i you	id you
3rd	he/she/it	and they

See 4/2 for the use of the persons. The 3rd person singular form of the tense ('he', 'she', 'it') has no ending; for this form the past tense is identical to the stem itself.

All past stems and endings, and hence all past tenses, are regular.

The past-tense verb is stressed on the last syllable of the past stem, when the verb is affirmative. Typical past tenses:

خواندن xāndan to read, past stem ...خواندن xānd- (the stress is shown in this example):

I, you, he, she, it, we, they read (previously)

- āmadan to come, past stem آمدن āmad-:

... آمدی، آمدی، آمدی، آمدی، آمدی، آمدی، آمدی، آمدی، آمدی dmadam, āmadi, āmad (etc.) ا (etc.) came; بودن budan to be, past stem ....

budam, budi, bud; بودم، بودی، بودیم، بودید، بودند budim, budid, budand I, he, she, it was; we, you, they were. So also all other verbs whose past stem ends in ع d.

koštan to kill, past stem کشت.. košt- (the stress is shown):

kóštam کشتیم kóštim کشتی kóštid کشتی kóštid کشتید kóštand

I, you, he, she, it, we, they killed

:-: raftan to go, past stem رفت.. raft-:

... رفتی، رفتی، raftam, rafti, raft (etc.) ا (etc.) went; ساخت. sāxtan to make, past stem ساخت. sāxt-:

... ساختم، ساختم، ساختم، ساختم، ساخت ... sāxtam, sāxti, sāxt (etc.) ا (etc.) made. So also all other verbs whose past stem ends in t.

**Colloquial pronunciation.** See 2/6. Colloquial pronunciation can be used for the past tense:

.xundam.> I've read (it).

• The past stem ... آشد... āmad is pronounced colloquially «umad-»:

دير أمدى. «dir umadi». You're ('You came') late.

See 5/19 for the past stem... tavānest- pronounced colloquially «tunest».

• The personal endings ....-id and ....-and are pronounced colloquially -in and -an respectively. Not all speakers use these two variants.

**Negative.** The negative of the past tense ('I did not do') is formed by adding the negative prefix ... i nd- to the affirmative verb. This prefix always takes the stress of the word:

náxāndim. we did not read nábudam I was not náraft he/she did not go

The combination náyā- is written with no madde:

آمدند āmadand they came

الله منه náyāmadand they did not come

منامدند avordam I brought

الله náyāvordam I did not bring

The combinations náya- and náyo- are written without alef:
 andāxtim we threw

سننداختيم náyandāxtim we did not throw oftād it fell

náyoftād it did not fall نيفتاد

The combination  $n\acute{a}i$ - occurs in the only Persian verb beginning with the vowel ii-j istādan 'to stand', 'to stop'. With this verb the alef is retained:

istādam I stood/stopped نایستادم náistādam I did not stand/stop

This *alef* is merely a spelling device, and is not pronounced  $[\bar{a}]$ . Some Iranians detach the prefix from this verb, writing it  $\checkmark$ :

ná istādam ندایستادم

For the past tense of compound verbs, see 5/29.

## 9. Using the past tense

The past tense is used similarly to the English past tense, i.e. for single previous completed actions or situations which are not deemed to have any effect on, or any relevance to, the present:

او را دیدم. u rā didam. I saw him.
مانجا نبودیم. ānjā nábudim. We were not there.
انجا نبودیم: kojā raftid? Where did you go?

Two other less obvious uses:

- in certain clauses of time relating to the future; see 8/9, first indent.
- in expressions such as the following, especially common in everyday speech:

(colloquially) ‹āmadam dige›. All right, I'm coming. رفتم. raftam. I'm off. to borou, man āmadam. You go (first), I'll follow.

The past tense is not normally used for a previous action which was continuous or repeated (see 5/13, 14), or for a previous action having an effect on the present situation (see 5/21, 22).

For a previous action or situation which was interrupted by another previous event, Persian also uses the past tense where English expresses it differently:

وقتيكة او رسيد من چند سال آنجا بودم.

vaqtike u rasid man cand sāl ānjā budam. When she arrived I had been ('was') there for some years.



dar bāzāre kermān In Kerman Bazaar

### 10. Forming the present tense

We form the present tense ('I do', 'I am doing') with the

present prefix + present stem + present personal endings

Present prefix. The present prefix is mi. It is commonly written detached from the verb. The present prefix is stressed when it is the only prefix (i.e. when the verb is affirmative): mi.

**Present stem.** To make the present stem of all verbs whose long infinitive (5/2 above) ends in ندن...-ndan we remove the ending ....-dan from that infinitive:

<u>Infinitive</u>	Present stem
*خواندن xāndan to read	-xān <b>خوان</b>
<i>māndan</i> to remain	-mān مان
<i>rāndan</i> to drive	-rān رانـ

<sup>\*</sup> silent • , see 1/13.

We make the present stem of many verbs whose long infinitive ends in الدن... -ādan or الدن... -idan by removing the ending الدن... -ādan or الدن... -idan from that infinitive:

افتادن	oftādan to fall	افت	oft-
ايستادن	istādan to stand/stop	ايست	ist-
دويدن	davidan to run	دو	dav-
خريدن	xaridan to buy	خر	xar-
پوشیدن	pušidan to wear	پوشد	
خوابيدن	xābidan to sleep	خواب	xāb-

A few verbs with long infinitive ending تن... -tan make their present stem by dropping the ending تن.. -tan from that infinitive:

These are all regular present stems.

For most remaining verbs the present stem is irregular and has to be learned with the verb. Some irregulars can be grouped, having similar stems. Appendix I lists common irregular present stems. Examples of such present stems are:

Other long infinitives ending الدن...ادن...-ādan/-idan:

dādan to give دهد.. deh-

āfaridan to create آفریدن āfaridan to create

cidan to set چيدن cin-

šenidan to hear شنیدن šenav-

bin- یین... didan to see

Long infinitives ending ودن. -udan:

namudan to show ... نا namā-

farmudan to command فرمودن farmudan

Other long infinitives ending ندن -dan:

mir- مير mordan to die مردن

قدن šodan to become شدن šav-

\*somordan to count شمردن šomār-

پردن bordan to take/carry بردن bar-

آمدن āmadan to come ... ā-

kon- کند.. kardan to do

آوردن āvordan/āvardan to bring .... ār-, also regular .... āvar-

Other long infinitives ending ... -tan:

sāxtan to make ساختن sāz-

andāz-- انداختن andāxtan to throw

foruxtan to sell فروختن foruxtan to sell

gozaštan to pass گذر... gozar-

-gozāštan to put گذار... gozāštan to put

nešin- نشستن nešastan to sit

bastan to tie, to close بساتن band-

goftan to say گفتن gu-

raftan to go ... و rav-

and many others

Principal parts. We can conveniently refer to any verb, regular or

irregular, by its two 'principal parts', i.e. the long infinitive and the present stem, so:

.... گفتن گو... goftan gu- to say since from these parts any form of any verb can be derived (with the exception of one verb only, بودن budan 'to be', for which see 5/11).

**Present personal endings**. The present-tense personal endings used *when the present stem ends in a consonant* are the same as those of the past tense (5/9 above), except the 3rd person singular:

<u>Persons</u>	<u>Singular</u>	Plural
1st	-am ا	im weim
2nd	i you ·	id you
3rd	ad he/she/it	and they

See 4/2 for the use of the persons.

The present-tense verb is assembled in the order <u>prefix + stem + ending</u>. Typical present tenses with the stem ending in a consonant:

### Regular stems:

ين خاندن خاند... xāndan xān- to read (the stress is shown in this example):

.... oftādan oft- to fall:

مىافتم	mi oftam	مىافتيم	mi oftim
مىافتى	mi ofti	مىافتيد	mi oftid
مىافتد	mi oftad	مىافتند	mi oftand
	I fall/am falling (etc.)		

#### 5 - Verbs

istādan ist- to stand, to stop: ایستادن ایستـ..

mi istim می ایستیم mi istam می ایستم mi istid می ایستی mi istand مى ايستند mi istad مى ايستد

I stand, stop/am standing, stopping (etc.)

... خریدن خر ... xaridan xar- to buy:

mi xaram می خرم mi xari می خری mi xarand می خرند

.... koštan koš- to kill:

mi košim می کشیم mi košim mi košid می کشید اس mi košid mi košand می کشند mi košand

I kill/am killing (etc.)

## Irregular stems:

\*\*Lardan kon- to do (the stress is shown in this example):

mí konim میکنیم mí konim میکنی mí konid میکنید mí konand می کنند mí konand

I do/am doing (etc.)

...ندن بین... didan bin- to see:

mi binim می بینیم mi binim می بینم mi binii می بینید mi binid می بینید mi binand می بیند mi bini می بینی I see (etc.)

.... bastan band- to tie, to close:

mi handam مىبنديم mi bandim mi bandid مىبندى mi bandid mi bandand مى بندند mi bandand

I tie, close/am tying, closing (etc.)

andāxtan andāz- to throw انداختن انداز...

mi andāzim می اندازی mi andāzim می اندازی mi andāzid می اندازی mi andāzand مي اندازند mi andāzand I throw/am throwing (etc.)

The present-tense personal endings used when the present stem ends in a vowel are the same as those for stems ending in a consonant, except that the letter - ye is put before the endings. Before endings beginning -a- the ye is sounded -y-, before endings beginning -i- the ye is silent (see 2/4):

<u>Persons</u>	Singular	Plural
1st	ا yamyam.	<i>im</i> weim
2nd	i you	id you
3rd	yad he/she/ityad	yand theyyand

Typical present tenses with stems (all irregular) ending in a vowel (which is always either  $|\bar{a}|$  or  $|u\rangle$ ):

...ا امدن أ... āmadan ā- to come:

 mi āyam
 مى آييم
 mi āim

 mi āi
 مى آييد
 mi āid

 mi āyad
 مى آيند
 mi āyand

 I come/am coming (etc.)

... غودن غا ... namudan namā- to show:

mi namāyam مى غايم mi namāim مى غايى mi namāi مى غايى mi namāid مى غايد mi namāyand مى غايند I show/am showing (etc.)

... گفتن گو goftan gu- to say:

goftan gu- to say:
میگوییم mi guyam میگویم mi guim میگویید mi guid میگویید mi guid میگوید
mi guyand میگوید

I say/am saying (etc.)

...يىد for ...ئيد ... im, ...ئيم for ...ئيم for ...ئي. for ...ئي.

We also encounter the present prefix *mi* joined in writing to the verb, though this is older spelling and is now discouraged. When the present stem begins with a consonant, the spelling in this style of writing is obvious:

When the present stem begins with a vowel, the beginning of the present tense in this style of writing is as follows:

- the combination *miā* is written with no *madde*:
  - ...ا آمدن آ āmadan ā- to come:

- the combinations *mía- and mío-* are written without *alef*:
  - ... andāxtan andāz- to throw:
  - ... میندازم، میندازی miandāzam, miandāzi (etc.)
    I throw/am throwing

.... oftādan oft- to fall:

i.e. ایستادن ایستادن

**Colloquial pronunciation.** See 2/6. The impact of colloquial pronunciation on the present tense is felt in several areas:

- The syllable ...  $\bar{a}n$  in the present stem (regular or irregular) can be pronounced colloquially  $\langle un \rangle$ ,  $\langle on \rangle$ , as it can in most words.
- Many irregular present stems are shortened in pronunciation.
- The personal ending 3... -ad is pronounced <-e> after a

consonant.

• The personal endings ــ... -id and ــ... -and are pronounced colloquially ‹-in› and ‹-an› respectively. Not all speakers use these two variants.

The pronunciation of the present prefix *mi*, and the spelling and stress of the whole verb, do not change. Here are those present stems shown in this paragraph which have a colloquial pronunciation:

	<u>Verb</u>	Colloquial present stem
خواندن خوان	<i>xāndan xān</i> - to read	<xun-></xun->
ماندن مانـ	māndan mān- to remain	<mun-></mun->
راندن ران	rāndan rān- to drive	<run-></run->
دادن دهـ	dādan deh- to give	<i>⟨d-⟩</i>
	šodan šav- to become	< <b>∛-</b> >
	$ar{a}madan\ ar{a}$ - to come	دā› (see below)
گفت <i>ن</i> گو	goftan gu- to say	⟨ <b>g-</b> ⟩
	raftan rav- to go	< <b>?-</b> >
•	gozāštan gozār- to put	⟨zār-⟩
گذشتن گذر	gozaštan gozar- to pass	s <i><zar-></zar-></i>

Annex I lists irregular present stems, with standard and colloquial pronunciation.

Examples of present tenses in colloquial pronunciation (in transcription only):

.... māndan mān/‹mun-› to remain:

<mi munam, mi muni, mi mune; mi munim, mi munin, mi munan>

.... dādan deh-/‹d-› to give:

(mi dam, mi di, mi de; mi dim, mi din, mi dan)

... مُنكن شو šodan šav/‹š-›- to become:

<mi šam, mi ši, mi še; mi šim, mi šin, mi šan>

goftan gu-/‹g-› to say: گفتن گو...

<mi gam, mi gi, mi ge; mi gim, mi gin, mi gan>

... رفتن رو... raftan rav-/‹r-› to go:

<mi ram, mi ri, mi re; mi rim, mi rin, mi ran>

gozāštan gozār-/‹zār› to put: گذار...

<mi zāram, mi zāri, mi zāre; mi zārim, mi zārin, mi zāran>

In ... آمدن آ... āmadan ā- 'to come'; -āya- becomes ‹-ā-›:

<mi ām, mi āi, mi ād; mi āim, mi āin, mi ān>

Negative. The negative of the present tense ('I do not do', 'I am not doing') is formed by adding the negative prefix ... ine- to the mi of the affirmative verb. The two prefixes are written together. The 'literary' pronunciation of this double prefix is námi, but the pronunciaton némi, formerly only colloquial, is now used even in formal speech for the present tense. However pronounced, the negative prefix always takes the stress of the word:

مَى روم. némi ravam/námi ravam. l am not going. مَى افتد. némi oftad/námi oftad. lt is not falling/will not fall.

To have. The verb ... داشتن دار...  $d\bar{a}$  stan  $d\bar{a}r$ - 'to have' forms its present tense regularly from its stem, but it does not have the present prefix. The stress is on the stem:

داریم dáram داریه dárim داری dárii داری dárid ‹dárin› دارید dárad ‹dáre› دارند dárand ‹dáran› دارند اhave (etc.)

dårad, dårid and dårand can be pronounced colloquially  $\langle d \hat{a} r e, d \hat{a} r e \rangle$  dårin, dåran, respectively.

Negative is with .... ná-:

ندارم، نداری، ندارد؛ نداریم، ندارید، ندارید، ندارند nádāram, nádāri, nádārad; nádārim, nádārid, nádārand l do not have (etc.)

To be. بودن باشد. budan bāš- 'to be' is irregular in the present tense and is examined in 5/11 below.

For the present tense of compound verbs, see 5/29.

### Forming the present tense: 'to be'

بودن باشد.. The present tense ('I am, you are' etc.) of the verb budan bāš- 'to be' has three forms, the commonest two of which are irregular.

**First form.** The first form of the present tense is:

<u>Persons</u>	<u>Sing</u>	ular	<u>Plur</u>	<u>al</u>
1st	م\ام	-am/ am	…يم∖ايم	-im/ im
2nd	…یٰ∖ایٰ	-i/ i	ید∖اید	-id/ id
3rd	ست∖است	-st/ ast	…ند∖اند	-and/ and
		I am (etc.)		

Several things to note about this form:

All the forms except the 3rd person singular (او \ او \ از) are most often joined to the previous word when that word ends in a consonant:

faqiram. I am poor. مهربانی\مهرابانید. mehrabāni/mehrabānid. You are kind.

ماً تركيم. mā torkim. We are Turks.

javānand. They are young.

inhā siband. These are apples.

. دوستانم داخلند. dustānam dāxeland. My friends are inside.

After silent final & (1/15), these forms are written separately with initial alef:

> tešne am. I am thirsty. . خسته أيم xaste im. We are tired.

After 1...  $\bar{a}$ , and 9... u/ou we have the following joined forms:

and after -...-i the following joined forms:

-am ن... -i ند... -id and - مند

? كجابند kojāyand? Where are they

. جلو يند jelouyand. They are ahead.

dānešjūyam. I am a student.

تبریزیم. ' tabriziam. I am a Tabrizi. ! am a Tabrizi. ! esfahānii(d)? Are you an Isfahani? tanhāi(d). You are alone.

We also encounter these forms written separately with initial alef, but it is equally common to use the second form of the verb (see below) after any long vowel or vowelcombination (أ  $\bar{a}$ , ع u/ou, ع i/ei).

The 3rd person singular form (او اآن) is written as a separate word ast when it follows a consonant or silent a:

.xub ast. It is good.

mašin birun ast. The car is outside.

?dar cerā bāz ast در جرا باز است؟ Why is the door open?

xatteš besyār qašang ast. خطش بسيار قشنگ است. His handwriting is very beautiful.

.taze ast. It is fresh تازه است.

in davande xaste ast. This runner is tired.

barādaram nevisande ast. برادرم نویسنده است. My brother is a writer.

baste ast. It is closed. بسته است.

In this form after a consonant (but not after silent ), it has a colloquial pronunciation (e):

.xub <e>. It's good

After a long vowel  $\int \bar{a}_i \, u$  or u it usually drops its alef and becomes -st, joined to the word ending in the long vowel:

injāst. He is here. مال اوست. māle ust. It is his. ......... irānist. She is Iranian. kist? Who is it?

Alternatively, it can be written separately with *alef* after  $\dots$  -u or  $\dots$  -i. The pronunciation is the same, -st; after  $\dots$  the words may also be pronounced in full:

After some words, the separated spelling is commoner:

 The forms and endings id/-id and and/-and can be pronounced colloquially <in> and <an>.

**Second form.** This form consists only of complete words (i.e. no joined forms); it is very common. It is stressed on the syllable *hást*:

<u>Persons</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
1st	hástam هستم	hástim هستیم
2nd	hásti هستی	hástid ‹hástin› هستید
3rd	hast هست	hástand ‹hástan› هستند

#### Note:

- This form can be used instead of any of the first forms shown.
- This form is commonly used in preference to the first form other than after a long vowel or vowel-combination:

dānešjū hastam. I am a student. تنها هستند. tanhā hastand. They are alone.

هندی هستی هستید. *hendi hasti/hastid.* You are Indian. jelou hastand. They are ahead.

This form is used when emphasis is needed on the verb:

vali injā hástand. But they are here.

arab hástand. They are Arab(s).

sahih hást. It is true/correct.

• The 3rd person singular form hast also has the meaning 'there is', 'there are':

kāre ziyād hast. There is a lot of work.

āyā māšinhā kāfi hast? آیا ماشینها کافی هست؟ Are there enough cars?

جای هست؟ دāi hast? Is there any tea? - بله، چای هست. – bale, cāi hást. - Yes, there is tea.

 hastid and hastand can be pronounced colloquially <hastin> and <hastan>.

Third form. This is regular (see 5/10), based on the present stem of باشد..  $b\bar{a}$ خ:

mí bāšim مى باشيم mí bāšim مى باشى mí bāšid مى باشيد mí bāšid مى باشيد mí bāšand مى باشد

(older spelling, still encountered: میباشم  $mib\bar{a}šam$  [etc.], with joined prefix)

However spelt, this form of the verb is used only in official language, and should be avoided in ordinary writing or speaking. It is encountered in some public documents and reports, and heard in some formal speeches:

امروزه بیکاری بزرگترین مسئلهٔ داخلی کشور می باشد. emruze bikāri bozorgtarin masaleye dāxeliye kešvar mi bāšad. Nowadays unemployment is the country's biggest internal problem.

Negative. The negative of 'to be' ('I am not ...') is:

nístim نیستی nístim نیستی nísti نیستی nístid ‹nístin› نیستید níst نیستند nístand ‹nístan›

The stress is on the first syllable. *nistid* and *nistand* can be pronounced colloquially *nistin* and *nistan* respectively. This is the only negative present-tense form of this verb in common use.

. مریض نیستم، خسته ام mariz nistam, xaste am. I'm not sick, I'm tired.

خوشحال نیستید؟ خوشحال نیستید؟ خوشحال نیستید. kārgarān rāzi nistand.
The workmen are not satisfied.

### 12. Using the present tense

The present tense is used for any current or impending action or situation ('I do', 'I am doing', 'I shall/will do'):

. nāme rā mi fahmam نامه را می فهمم ا understand the letter.

ce mi guyad? چه می گوید ؟
What does he say/is he saying?

... که است که heif ast ke ... It is a pity that ...

eib nist. It doesn't matter. ('It's no fault.')

ma'mulan injā mi nešinim. معمولاً اینجا می نشینیم. We usually sit here.

> ? چرا می خندید cerā mi xandid? Why are you laughing/do you laugh?

... you (will) see why... می بینید چرا

hafteye āyande mi rasim.

We are arriving/shall arrive next week.

فرداً به فرودگاه غی روند. fardā be forudgāh némi ravand.
They are not going/will not go to the airport tomorrow.

A future tense exists for expressing a projected action or an

expected situation; but it is used almost exclusively in written Persian or formal speech; it is examined in 5/27 and 28. In everyday Persian the present tense is used, as in the last example given above.

The present tense of certain verbs is also used for an action or situation which started previously and continues now. Such sentences often have a pattern corresponding to 'It is (so long) that ...':

• with بودن budan 'to be' in the affirmative:

('It is three years that I am here').

 with verbs denoting an action (not a situation, except for بودن) in the affirmative:

do sā'at ast ke hamin nāme rā minevisad. He has been writing the same letter for two hours now.

I have known him for some years.

is logically not an action but a situation; yet it is better expressed with the present tense.

For such verbs denoting a *situation* (allowing for exceptions such as the one shown immediately above), and for the negative of all such verbs, we use the perfect tense, for which see 5/21, 22.

## 13. Forming the imperfect tense

The imperfect or continuous past tense ('I was doing', I used to do')

is formed with the

## present prefix + past tense

See 5/10 and 8 above for these. The prefix is always stressed when the verb is affirmative. Two examples will suffice:

raftan to go (the stress is shown):

mí raftam میرفتیم mí raftim میرفتی mí raftid میرفتید mí raftid میرفتید mí raftid میرفتید mí raftid میرفتند mí raftand ا was going, l used to go (etc.)

خواندن xāndan to read:

mi xāndim می خواندیم mi xāndim می خواندم mi xāndid می خواندید mi xāndid می خواندی mi xāndand

I was reading, I used to read (etc.)

The negative of this tense is formed exactly like the negative of the present tense, i.e. the prefix becomes *i.e.* némi or námi:

némi raftam/námi raftam I was not going, I used not to go

némi xāndam/námi xāndam I was not reading, I used not to read

مَّى آمد némi āmad/námi āmad (colloquially, <némi umad>)
he was not coming, he used not to come

This tense is not used for the verb بودن budan 'to be', or for داشتن dāštan 'to have' as a simple verb.

For the imperfect tense of compound verbs, see 5/29.

#### 14. Using the imperfect tense

The imperfect or continuous past tense is used for a previous continuous or repeated action or situation which has now ceased:

قن وقت تاریخ می آموخت. أن وقت تاریخ می آموخت. At that time she was teaching history.

مرتبًا به باشگاه می رفتند. morattaban be bāšgāh mi raftand.

They used to go regularly to the club.

همیشه پول خرد را دو بار می شمرد. hamiše pule xord rā
do bār mi šomord. He always counted the small change twice.

ruznāme rā mi xāndam ke u روزنامه را میخواندم که او رسید. rasid/resid. I was reading the newspaper when he arrived.

The last example shows a continuous action (imperfect tense) interrupted by a single action (past tense). See 8/9.

There are two other important uses of the imperfect, explained elsewhere:

- In unreal conditions ('If I had known ...' etc.), see 8/11.
- 'ought to have (done)', see 5/19 below.

#### 15. Colloquial continuous tenses

Colloquial Persian has two continuous tenses. They are the colloquial present continuous and the colloquial past continuous. Each of these tenses consists respectively of the present or past tense (see 5/10 and 8) of ..., daštan dar- 'to have', followed by the present or imperfect tense (5/13) of the operative verb, both verbs in the pair agreeing with the subject. These tenses are sometimes also seen in writing, where dialogue is quoted.

From نوشتن نویسد.. neveštan nevis- to write:

#### Colloquial present continuous

دارم می نویسم «dāram mi nevisam» داری می نویسی «dāri mi nevisi» دارد می نویسد «dāre mi nevise» دارد می نویسیم «dārim mi nevisim» دارید می نویسید «dārin mi nevisin» دارید می نویسید «dāran mi nevisan» دارند می نویسند ا'm writing, you're writing (etc.)

#### Colloquial past continuous

dāštam mi neveštam> داشتم می نوشتم می نوشتی حلی خطقانهٔ داشتی می نوشتی حلی خطقانهٔ داشت می نوشت حلی خطقانهٔ داشتیم می نوشتیم حلی نوشتید حلی نوشتید حلی نوشتید حلی نوشتید حلی نوشتید حلی نوشتند حلی نوشتید حلی نوشتند حلی نو

I was writing, you were writing (etc.)

The first verb of the pair usually follows its subject (or stands in place of its implied subject), the second verb standing at the end of the sentence or clause (see 8/4 for the definition of a clause):

رضا دارد روزنامه را می خواند. «rezā dāre ruznāme ro mi xune.» Reza's reading the newspaper.

daštam lebās ro mi šostam.> داشتم لباس را می شستم I was washing the clothes.

There is no negative form of these colloquial tenses. See 5/29 for the use of these tenses with compound verbs.

### 16. Forming the present subjunctive tense

The present subjunctive tense (more conveniently called the 'subjunctive') expresses possibility or hypothesis ('I may do'). It is formed from the present tense (5/10 above) by replacing the present prefix mi with the subjunctive prefix, which is always stressed, and always joined in writing. In the examples given below, verbs are indicated by their 'principal parts'.

Before present stems beginning with a consonant, the subjunctive prefix is  $\dots \downarrow b\acute{e}$ :

....... neveštan nevis- to write (the stress is shown):

hénevisim بنویسیم hénevisim بنویسی hénevisid بنویسی hénevisid بنویسید bénevisad بنویسد bénevisand

I may write (etc.)

.... goftan gu- to say: گفتن گو

beguyam بگویم begui بگویی begui بگوید

beguim بگوییم beguid بگویید beguyand بگویند

I may say (etc.)

Before present stems beginning with a vowel other than i-, the subjunctive prefix is  $\dots + bi$ -. In the combinations bia- and bio- the alef is dropped; in the combination bia- the madde is dropped:

... andāxtan andāz- to throw:

... بيندازى ، بيندازى biandāzam, biandāzi (etc.) ا may throw (etc.)

.... oftādan oft- to fall:

... بيفتم، بيفتم، bioftam, biofti (etc.) I may fall (etc.) ... آمدن آ āmadan ā- to come:

... بیایی biāyam, biāi (etc.) ا may come (etc.)

Before the only present stem *beginning with i-*, the prefix is ...... *bé*-and the *alef* of the verb is kept:

istādan ist- to stand, to stop:

... بایستی ، بایستی béistam, béisti (etc.) ا may stand, stop (etc.)

With verbs having a vowel u or o in the present stem, the subjunctive prefix may also be pronounced  $b\delta$ - (the stress being maintained). Examples:

\*kardan kon- to do کردن کنـ..

... بكنى ، بكنى bókonam, bókoni (etc.) I may do (etc.)

.... خوردن خور... خوردن خور...

... بخورم، بخوری boxoram, boxori (etc.) I may eat/drink (etc.) ... گفتن گو goftan gu- to say:

... بگویم، بگویم، boguyam, bogui (etc.) ا may say (etc.)

"gozāštan gozār- to put: گذاشتن گذار...

... م، بگذاری bogozāram, bogozāri (etc.) ا may put (etc.)

hudan bāš- 'to be' is formed with بودن باشد.. The subjunctive of present stem + personal ending (i.e. no prefix)

The stress is on the first syllable:

.... بودن باش... budan bāš- to be (the stress is shown):

bāšam باشم bášim باشیم باشيد bášid bāši باشي bāšand باشند bášad باشد

I may be (etc.)

The present subjunctive tense of ... اشتن دار... dāštan dār- 'to have' is little used; instead we use the perfect subjunctive tense, for which see 5/23.

Colloquial pronunciation. The elements of colloquial pronunciation (see 2/6) found in the present tense apply also to the subjunctive:

..... *māndan mān-/‹mun-›* to remain:

<br/>

... شدن شو šodan šav-/‹š-› to become:

<br/>

.... budan bāš- to be:

<br/>
<br/>
<br/>
bāšam, bāši, bāše; bāšim, bāšin, bāšan,

In ... أمدن أ... āmadan ā- 'to come'; -āya- becomes -ā-:

<br/>
<br/>biām, biāi, biād; biāim, biāin, biān>

The alternative pronunciation bo- of the prefix for certain verbs (see above) is not used when the colloquial present stem has no گذاشتن گذار... goftan gu-/‹g-› and گفتن گو wowel u or o. For e.g. ... gozāštan gozār-/‹zār-› we have:

<br/>
<br/>bégam, bégi, bége; bégim, bégin, bégan> <bezāram, bezāri, bezāre; bezārim, bezārin, bezāran>

Negative. The negative subjunctive ('I may not do') is made by substituting the negative prefix .... ná-. The negative prefix then

takes the stress of the word:

náguim we may not say نگرییم náguim we may not say نرود náravad he may not go ننویسند nánevisand they may not write

Before a vowel, this prefix follows exactly the same pattern as that shown for the negative past tense (see 5/8):

يايد náyāyad he may not come نيفتد náyōtad it may not fall نياورم náyāvaram I may not bring نايستند náistand they may not stop

For the negative subjunctive of ... بودن باشد. budan bāš- 'to be' we attach the stressed negative prefix directly to the affirmative form: ... بباشی nábāšam, nábāši (etc.) I may not be (etc.).

For the present subjunctive tense of *compound verbs*, see 5/29.

#### 17. Using the present subjunctive tense

The present subjunctive tense expresses possibility rather than fact. It has three principal uses:

- to express the imperative for certain persons; see 5/18 below.
- after certain auxiliary verbs, examined in 5/19:

باید بروم bāyad beravam I must go nemi xāhad biāyad. He does not want to come.

 after certain conjunctions, to express probability, anticipation, purpose and the like, examined in 8/5, 6, 7, 9, 11:

يرسيد. تا سر وقت برسيد تا سر وقت برسيد. berasid. Go quickly so that you arrive on time.

... agar emruz berasad ... If he/she arrives today ...

#### 18. Imperative

The imperative or command form of the verb is derived from the present subjunctive tense (the 'subjunctive'), for which see 5/16 above.

For the 1st and 3rd persons (singular and plural), the form is identical to the subjunctive (affirmative or negative), which then has the meaning 'let me (etc.) do/not do':

goftan gu- to say (the stress is shown):

بگوییم béguyam let me say بگوییم béguyam let me say بگوییم béguyad let him/her say نگویند náguyand let them not say

When put into a question, these forms have the meaning 'should I (etc.) (not) do?' or 'may I (etc.) (not) do?':

وه بگویم؟ دو beguyam ‹hegam›? What should I say? بگویم؟ fardā nayāyand ‹nayānd›?

May they not/Should they not come tomorrow?

should Ahmad go too? احمد هم برود؟

For the 2nd persons, the form is identical to the subjunctive *minus* final رتو... -i in the singular (تما), and identical to the unchanged subjunctive in the plural (شما). The meaning is that of a direct command, 'Do/Do not':

بنویس bénevis write ننویسید nánevisid do not write بیالیید biā(id) come بیالیید naya(id) do not come بیالیید bekašid pull نیرسید beporsid ask

The imperative of بودن باشد. budan bāš- 'to be' follows the rules given above. Like the subjunctive, it has no prefix in the affirmative:

. خاطر جمع باشید. xāter jam' bāšid. Be (re)assured. deltang nábāš. Don't be downhearted.

For verbs whose present stem has the vowel o, the prefix ... is pronounced bo -:

bokon(id) Do بكن\بكنيد ham injā bogozārand. Let them put (it) just here.

.\* چای را بخور cāi rā boxor. Drink (your) tea.

\* j is silent here, see 1/13.

For verbs whose present stem has the vowel u written with , the prefix ... may be pronounced either be- or bo:

پکرید begu(id)/bogu(id) Say, Tell

For verbs whose present stem has the sound av written , then in this syllable is pronounced ou, and the prefix ... may be pronounced either be- or bo:

برو \نرو berou (borou)/narou Go/Don't go (singular) برو انرو but: بروید beravid/naravid Go/Don't go (plural)

The imperative of the simple verb ... dāštan dār- 'to have' is little used; if an imperative is needed it is derived from the perfect subjunctive tense: داشته باشید dāšte bāšid 'have' (etc.). See 5/23.

بفرمایید Perhaps the most frequently used imperative is befarmāid, used when offering or proposing something (see 12/6). It is the equivalent of German 'Bitte' or Italian 'Prego'. Used in this sense, this word is always plural and affirmative:

بفرمایید. befarmāid.
Please do/go ahead/help yourself.

. az in taraf befarmāid xānom. Come this way, ma'am.

so'āl hast? befarmāid. Are there questions? Please (ask).

Colloquial pronunciation. Colloquial pronunciation (see 2/6) applies to the imperative exactly as it does to the subjunctive:

برویم. خفته، Let's go.
اینجا بیایید. injā خفته، Come here.
خات بیایند. الآن بیایند.

For the imperative of compound verbs, see 5/29.

#### 19. Auxiliary verbs

An auxiliary verb is a verb used in combination with another verb. The auxiliary expresses such ideas as capability, volition, obligation with relation to the second verb. Typical English auxiliary expressions (with the auxiliary underlined) are 'I can come', 'he wants to go', 'we must write'. In English the second or operative verb stands in the *infinitive*; in Persian it stands in a tense, (mostly the *present subjunctive*, 5/16 above), in the same person as the auxiliary verb.

The auxiliary verb usually stands immediately after its subject (or in the place of its implied subject); the subjunctive verb stands at the end of the sentence or clause (see 8/4). Where appropriate, the auxiliaries are shown below with their principal parts (5/10 above).

The important auxiliary verbs are:

tavānestan tavān- can, to be able توانستن تواند...
bāyestan must, to have to
دواستن خواهـ..
خواستن خواهـ..
šāyad may (perhaps)

They are used as follows:

• tavānestan tavān- can, to be able. The present tense of this verb is formed in the usual way, see 5/10 above. Its present stem has a colloquial pronunciation (see 2/6) <tun->:

mi tavānad fardā beravad.
<mi tune fardā bere> He can go tomorrow.

. nemi tavānam «nemi tunam» غی توانم خوب بفهمم xub befahmam. I cannot understand properly ('well').

آیا همکارتان می تواند این صندوق را بالا بگذارد؟ āyā hamkāretān mi tavānad in sandug rā bālā begozārad? Can your colleague put this box upstairs?

از این پنجره می توانم مسجد را ببینم. az in panjare mi tavānam masjed rā bebinam. From this window I can see the mosque.

cerā nemi tavānand چرا نمی توانند جواب را بفرستند؟ javāb rā beferestand? Why can they not send the answer? هیچکس نمی تواند این خط را بخواند.

> hickas nemi tavānad in xat rā bexānad. Nobody can read this handwriting.

For past meaning, the imperfect (5/13 above) of this verb is the most commonly used tense. In this verb the past stem also has a colloquial pronunciation, <tunest->:

.mi tavānestand do tā bexarand مي توانستند دو تا بخرند. «mi tunestand» ... They were able to buy two.

. من بياييم nemi tavānestim <nemi tunestim hiāim. We couldn't come/we were unable to come.

The simple past tense (5/8 above) is used mostly in the negative, with the implied meaning 'tried but failed':

پروین نتوانست در را خوب ببندد.

parvin natavānest dar rā xub bebandad. Parvin was unable to close the door properly.

az sedāye از صدای هواپیماها نتوانستم بخوابم. havāpeimāhā natavānestam «natunestam» bexāham. I couldn't sleep for the noise of the aeroplanes.

bāyestan must, to have (to). This verb is defective, having only one present form and one past form, used for all persons. The verb following it agrees with the subject as usual.

بايد bāyad 'must'; (present form) is used:

with the present subjunctive, 'must', 'have to/has to':

bāyad ha deqqat bešomārim. We must count accurately.

باید غذا را تند بخوری. nabāyad qazā ra tond tond boxori. You mustn't eat (your) food (so) fast. . باید این حساب را امروز بپردازم. bāyad in hesāb rā emruz bepardāzam. I must pay this bill today.

nabāyad intour beguid.

You must not say that ('thus').

# بچه ها باید توی خیابان مواظب باشند.

baccehā bāyad tuye xiābān movāzeb bāšand. Children have to be careful on ('in') the street.

هر دانشجو باید دفتری بیاورد. har dānešju bāyad daftari biāvarad. Every student has to bring a notebook.

 with the perfect subjunctive (5/23, 24 below), 'must have (done)', 'presumably has/have (done)':

رضا باید دیر رسیده باشد. rezā bāyad dir raside bāšad. Reza must (presumably) have arrived late.

hāyad manzel mānde bāšand. They must have stayed at home.

پروین باید این نامه را نوشته باشد.

parvin bāyad in nāme rā nevešte hāšad.

Parvin must have written this letter.

بايست bāyest (past form) is used:

- with the present subjunctive, 'ought to':

bāyest rāst begui. بايست راست بگويي.

You ought to tell the truth.

bāyest movāzeb bāšand. بايست مواظب باشند.

They ought to be careful.

nabāyest intour bokonim. باست اینطور بکنیم.
We ought not to do that ('thus').

 with the imperfect tense (5/13 above), 'ought to/should have (done)':

بایست زود تر می امدید. bāyest zudtar mi āmadid.
You ought to/should have come sooner (but didn't).

# بچه ها بایست منزل می ماندند.

baccehā bāyest manzel mi māndand. The children should have stayed (at) home.

'had to', which is in English the past corresponding to 'must', is best expressed indirectly in Persian also. The easiest formula is مجبور بودن majbur budan 'to be forced', with the dependent verb in the present subjunctive:

مجبور بوديم اضافه بپردازيم. majbur budim ezāfe bepardāzim. We had to ('were forced to') pay extra.

There is no different colloquial pronunciation for بايد or

بو xāstan xāh- (silent و see 1/13) to want. The tenses are formed regularly. Present-tense examples:

mi xāhand emruz biāyand. They want to come today.

مى خواهم يك كوزه و چند تا كاسه بخرم. mi xāham yek kuze o cand tā kāse bexaram. I want to buy a jug and some bowls.

مى خواهند خانه را بفروشند. mi xāhand xāne rā beforušand. They want to sell the house.

? ki mi xāhad injā benešinad کی می خواهد اینجا بنشیند Who wants to sit here?

bištar nemi xāham bemānam. I don't want to stay any longer ('more').

For past meaning ('wanted'), the imperfect of this verb is the most commonly used form:

mi xāstam nāme benevisam. ا مىخواستم نامه بنويسم. ا wanted to write a letter.

. mi xāstand tāksi begirand. They wanted to take/get a taxi.

rezā nemi xāst bemānad. Reza didn't want to stay.

The simple past tense expresses 'was/were about to':

xāstam beravam. I was about to go.

The verb خواستن also translates 'to ask for' (with الز az before the person asked). Both in this meaning and in the meaning 'to want', it can take a direct object:

az sanduqdār mosā'ede از صندوقدار مساعده خواست. xāst. He asked the cashier for an advance.

كارگرها اضافه مىخواهند. kārgarhā ezāfe mi xāhand.
The workmen want/are asking for a rise.

In the colloquial pronunciation of the present stem of this verb.  $-\bar{a}ha$ - becomes  $-\bar{a}$ :

<mi xām, mi xāhi, mi xād; mi xāhim, mi xāhin, mi xān>

• بايستن šāyad may (perhaps). Like بايستن bāyestan, the verb غيستن šāyestan is defective. It has only an invariable present شايد šāyad 'may'. In literary Persian this verb counts as an auxiliary and is followed by the subjunctive; but in everyday Persian شايد is very commonly used simply as an adverb meaning 'perhaps', with the operative verb in an appropriate non-subjunctive tense:

قاید فردا برود. šāyad fardā heravad. She may (perhaps) go tomorrow.

قاید همه اش را بدانند می دانند. همه اش را بدانند می دانند. bedānand/ mi dānand. Perhaps they know everything. For the negative, we negate the dependent verb, not the

For the negative, we negate the dependent verb, not the auxiliary:

. šāyad naravad/nemi ravad. She may (probably) not go.

قاید هیچ چیز نگفت. \*قyad hic ciz nagoft.

Perhaps he said nothing.

There is no different colloquial pronunciation for this auxiliary verb.

**Impersonal expressions.** Three auxiliary verbs, two of them described above, are used with the *short infinitive* (5/2 above) to make impersonal expressions ('one can do' etc.):

- 'one can', 'one could'. For this we have two formulæ:
  - the form <u>من توان mi tavān</u> (present) + short infinitive</u>, in which the auxiliary has no personal ending:

az injā masjed rā از اینجا مسجد را می توان دید. mi tavān did. You ('One') can see the mosque from here.

nemi tavān āntour goft. غي توان آنطور گفت.

One cannot say that ('thus').

The present stem  $tav\bar{a}n$ - is not usually pronounced colloquially in this usage.

- the 3rd person singular (او اَو اَلَ) form می شود mi šavad (present) or می شد mi šod (imperfect) of شدن شو... šodan šav- 'to become' + short infinitive. This is especially common in speech, and colloquial pronunciation may be used:

mi šavad/‹mi še› intour goft? می شود اینطور گفت؟ (Can you say this ('thus')?

- na, <nemi še>. - No, you can't.

nemi šod xub šenid.

One could not hear well.

• 'one must', 'one ought to'. For these, we use the already impersonal forms بایست  $b\bar{a}yad$  (present) or  $b\bar{a}yest$  (past), + short infinitive:

باید همیشه راست گفت.

One must always tell the truth.

nabāyad ma'yus šod.

One must not lose hope ('become desperate').

. بایست زود تصمیم گرفت. bāyest zud tasmim gereft.

One ought to take a decision quickly.

See 5/29 for the use of auxiliary verbs with compound verbs.



اصفحان، میدان امام (میدان شاه)

esfahān - meidāne emām (meidāne šāh) Isfahan - Imam Square (King's Square)

### 20. Participles

Participles are adjectives derived from verbs. Like English, Persian has two participles: the *present participle* ('doing') and the *past participle* ('done').

Present participle. This participle is formed by adding to the present stem (5/10 above) the ending منده -andé (after a vowel, -yandé; both forms with silent final ، see 1/15). The participle is stressed on its last vowel:

Present stem	Present participle
nevis- write نویس	nevisandé writing نویسنده
foruš- sell فروش	forušandé selling فروشنده
$$ ī $\bar{a}$ - come	<i>āyandé</i> coming

**Past participle.** This participle is formed by adding to the past stem (5/8 above) the stressed ending  $-\acute{e}$  (with silent  $\acute{e}$ ):

<u>Past stem</u>	<u>Past participle</u>
عنان rasid-/resid- arrived	rasidé/residé arrived رسیده

\*\*kardé done کرد... kardé done کرد... gozašt- passed گذشته gozašté passed گذشته nevešté written

Use of the present participle. The *present participle* is in principle a verbal adjective, but its use as such is very limited. Often the participle is best translated by a non-verbal adjective in English:

sāle āyande next year سال آینده naslhāye āyande future generations

More common is the use of this participle as a noun, denoting the person or thing performing the action of the verb:

فروشنده forušande vendor, salesman/woman غاینده namāyande representative inevisande writer قریسنده āyande the future

There are two uses of the English '-ing' verbal form which are *not* expressed with the Persian present participle:

- the English continuous tenses ('I am doing', 'I was doing'), for which Persian uses the present (5/10) or imperfect (5/13) tenses, or one of the colloquial continuous tenses (5/15),
- the English verbal noun, e.g. 'reading', for which Persian uses the long infinitive, 5/2 above.

Not all theoretically possible present participles are in use.

**Use of the past participle.** The *past participle* is used as an adjective in certain cases; sometimes, like the present participle, it is best translated with a non-verbal adjective in English:

بانک بسته است. bānk baste ast. The bank is closed. panjareye šekastei a broken window māhe gozašte last month, the past month sibe raside the ripe apple/ripe apples\*

(\* singular collective noun, see 3/4.)

A second use is as a noun:

#### 5 - Verbs

# gozašte the past گذشته neveštehā writings, written works

A third use is in a verbal phrase, 'having (done)':

اینطور گفته، بلند شد و رفت. intour gofte, boland šod o raft.

Having said that ('thus'), she stood up and left ('went').

The past participle is also used in two verb forms:

- in the perfect, perfect subjunctive and pluperfect tenses, for which see 5/21, 23 and 25,
- in the *passive voice*, for which see 5/30.

The past participle can be made negative in the same manner as the past tense:

## nágofte not (having) said

A negative present participle exists in theory but is extremely rare.

See 3/4 for literary plurals of nouns ending in silent •, which include both types of participles, e.g. غايندگان namāyandegān 'representatives', نوشته جات neveštejāt 'writings'.

See 7/6 for adverbial participles, less common than adjectival participles.

#### 21. Forming the perfect tense

The perfect tense ('I have done') is formed with

past participle + first form of 'to be' (present)

See 5/20 and 11 respectively for these. In the perfect tense the form of 'to be' follows silent **a**, and is therefore written separately, with initial *alef* (see 5/11, first and second indents).

zud rasidé im. We have arrived early. زود رسیده ایم.

u ham rafté ast. He has gone too.

baccehā in rā nevešté and.

The children have written this.

In the affirmative tense the stress is on the final vowel of the participle.

For the negative of this tense, we negate the participle. The stress shifts on to the prefix:

. hanuz náraside ast. He has not yet arrived هنوز نرسيده است. ? náyāmade and? Have they not come نيامده اند

hic nāme nánevešte im.

We have written no letter/We have not written any letter.

For the perfect tense of *compound verbs*, see 5/29.

#### 22. Using the perfect tense

The perfect tense is used, as in English, for a previous action or situation whose effect is still felt now:

. رسيده أند. raside and. They have arrived (and are still here).

... rais farmude ast ke ...

The director has ordered that ...

and are often اند ast and اند ast and اند omitted:

? Hasn't the car come? ماشين نيامده؟ - چوا آمده. – - eerā, ‹umade›. -Yes, it has. hameye mehmānhā rafte. All the guests have gone.

Just as the present tense can convey future meaning (5/12), so the perfect tense can convey a future-perfect meaning ('I shall/will have done') when appropriate:

The perfect tense is not normally used for a previous action having no effect on the present situation; that requires either the past tense (5/8, 9) or the imperfect tense (5/13, 14).

For a previous action or situation which itself continues into the present, Persian uses either the perfect or the present tense (5/10, 11, 12), as follows:

When the verb (whether denoting action or situation) is

negative, the perfect is used:

az ān vaqt birun narafte از آن وقت بيرون نرفته است.

ast. Since then he/she has not gone out.

دو ماه حقوق نپرداخته اند. do māh hoquq napardāxte and. They have paid no salary for two months.

ارد از دیروز ندیده ام. išān rā az diruz nadide am. I have not seen him/her/them since yesterday.

hicvaqt āntour nabude ast.

It has never been so.

For a verb other than 
 • budan 'to be' denoting a situation in the affirmative, the perfect is used:

قطدان نیم ساعت نشسته اند. šāhedān nim sā'at nešaste and. The witnesses have been sitting for half an hour.

az tābestān mānde and.

They have been staying since the summer.

• For بودن budan 'to be' in the affirmative, or for a verb denoting an action in the affirmative, we use the present tense; see 5/12.

An ambiguity arises when certain past participles are used as adjectives with the present tense of يودن budan; this structure looks like the perfect tense but should not be confused with it:

panjare šekaste ast. The window is broken.

jom'ehā bānkhā baste and.
On Friday ('Fridays') the banks are clos

On Friday ('Fridays') the banks are closed.

This use is confined to verbs which can take a direct object (see 5/6). With sentences such as these the ambiguity can be avoided by using the second form of بودن budan (see 5/11):

. jom'ehā bānkhā baste hastand جمعه ها بانكها بسته هستند

### 23. Forming the perfect subjunctive tense

The perfect subjunctive tense ('(that) I might do', '(that) I may have done') is formed with

past participle + subjunctive of be' budan 'to be' (See 5/20 and 16 respectively for these.)

kardé bāšam (that) I might do كرده باشم nevešté bāšad (that) he/she might write خوانده باشيم xāndé bāšim (that) we might read

When the verb is affirmative the stress of the whole tense lies on the final vowel of the participle.

The negative of this tense is formed by making the participle negative. The stress shifts on to the negative prefix, as always:

nárafte/náyāmade bāšad (that) he might not go/come

ندیده باشید nádide bāšid (that) you might not see تگرفته باشند nágerefte bāšand (that) they might not take

The perfect subjunctive tense of .... daštan dār- 'to have' is used instead of the subjunctive tense. It mostly therefore has present, not perfect, meaning:

dāšte bāšam داشته باشيم dāšte bāšim داشته باشي dāšte bāšid داشته باشيد dāšte bāšid داشته باشيد dāšte bāšad داشته باشند dāšte bāšad داشته باشند (that) I may have (etc.)

Negative: ... نداشته باشم nádāšte bāšam (etc.)

This gives us the imperative (see 5/18) of داشتن, which is identical to the perfect subjunctive except for the 2nd person singular (تو) form, ناداشته باش (ná)dāšte bāš '(don't) have'.

These are the subjunctive tense and imperative forms used when this verb is used as a simple verb (5/5 above). Its simple imperative is rarely used. The forms are different, and more common in use, when this verb occurs as the verbal element of a compound verb.

For the perfect subjunctive tense of compound verbs, see 5/29.

#### 24. Using the perfect subjunctive tense

The perfect subjunctive tense expresses possibility rather than fact.

The perfect subjunctive of ... *daštan dār-* 'to have' is used instead of the present subjunctive, e.g. after an auxiliary verb (5/19 above):

bāyad vaqte ziād dāšte bāšim. We have to have a lot of time.

har sarbāz bāyad nomrei dāšte هر سرباز باید غره ای داشته باشد. bāšad. Every soldier must have a number.

and for the imperative of certain persons, see 5/23.

Two other important uses of the perfect subjunctive (of all verbs, including داشتن daštan) are explained elsewhere:

- after certain conjunctions, to express a probability, hope, purpose and the like (8/5, 7, 9, 11):
  - mi tarsam ke ānhā ham مى ترسم كه آنها هم رفته باشند. rafte bāšand. I fear they (may) have gone too.
- with the auxiliary verb بايد  $b\bar{a}yad$ , to express 'must have (done)', 'presumably has/have (done)', see 5/19.

The perfect subjunctive tense of ... budan bāš- 'to be' is rarely used.

#### 25. Forming the pluperfect tense

The pluperfect tense ('I had done') is formed with

past participle + past tense of يه budan 'to be'

(See 5/20 and 5/8 respectively for these.)

When affirmative, the verb is stressed on the final vowel of the participle:

nevešté budam l had written

The negative of this tense is formed by making the participle negative. The stress then moves back to the prefix:

## náhorde/náyāvorde hud she had not taken/brought

For the pluperfect tense of compound verbs, see 5/29.

#### 26. Using the pluperfect tense

The pluperfect tense denotes a completed action or state situated farther back in time than the past tense (5/8 above), or one which preceded another completed action or state:

cand vaqte piš raside budim. چند وقت پیش رسیده بودیم. We had arrived some time before.

hanuz nanešaste budam ke piānist šoru' kard.

I had hardly ('not yet') sat down when the pianist began.

Some ambiguity arises when certain past participles are used as adjectives with the past tense of بودن budan; this structure looks like the pluperfect tense but should not be confused with it:

د کان بسته بود. dokkān haste hud. The shop was closed.

This use is confined to verbs which can take a direct object (see 5/6).

... budan bāš- 'to be' is not used. بو دن باشد..

### 27. Forming the future tense

The future tense ('I shall do') is formed with

auxiliary verb + short infinitive

The auxiliary verb in question is ...خواستن خواهد. xāstan xāh- 'to want' (5/19) in the present tense, minus its present prefix, thus:

See 5/2 for the short infinitive.

There is no different colloquial pronunciation for the auxiliary verb in this use.

For the negative of this tense we prefix ... iná- to the auxiliary.

The stress of the whole tense is on the auxiliary - on its *personal ending* (NB) in the affirmative, on its prefix in the negative:

خواهم نوشت خواهم نوشت مفراهم نوشت مفراهم نوشت náxāham nevešt I shall not write . أسان خواهد بود āsān xāhád bud. It will be easy. قسان نخواهد بود āsān náxāhad bud. It will not be easy.

The auxiliary and the short infinitive almost always stay together, at the end of the clause or sentence (see 8/4 for the definition of a clause).

#### 28. Using the future tense

The future tense denotes an action or state clearly situated ahead of the present. It is used mostly in writing, and then to denote an intention, or to emphasise the future timing of the verb, or when no other expression in the sentence makes the future timing clear:

javābe šadidi xāhim nevešt. We shall write a stern reply.

saxt ast vali āsāntar xāhad سخت است ولى آسانتر خواهد شد. šod. It is difficult but it will get ('become') easier.

When the future timing is clear from the context, or the action is imminent, the present tense with future meaning (5/12 above) is commonly used instead:

فردا مى ايند. fardā mi āyand.
They are coming (= will come) tomorrow.

The future tense is also commonly used (also in speech) to express a supposition, as in English:

For the future tense of *compound verbs*, see 5/29 below.

#### 29. Compound verbs

See 5/5. Persian has relatively few simple verbs; for any but the most basic concepts a compound verb is used. The compound consists of a non-verbal element and a simple verb. The verbs quoted below are only a small sample; they are shown with the principal parts (5/10 above) of their verbal element:

bāz kardan kon- to open باز کردن کند.. telefon kardan kon- to telephone تلفن کردن کند... kār kardan kon- to work, to do kušeš kardan kon- to try کوشش کردن کند.. zendegi kardan kon- to live زندگی کردن کند.. komak kardan kon- to help کمك کردن کند.. bar xāstan xiz- to rise بر خاستن خيز... bar gaštan gard- to return بر گشتن گرد... piš āmadan ā- to occur پیش آمدن آ... vāred šodan šav- to enter وارد شدن شو... meil dāštan dār- to like, to want ميل داشتن دار ... dust dāštan dār- to like دوست داشتن دار ... jor'at dāštan dār- to dare جرأت دار... ... بر داشتن دار... bar dāštan dār- to remove javāb dādan deh- to answer جواب دادن ده... dars dadan deh- to teach درس دادن دهـ.. dars xāndan xān- to study درس خواندن خواند.. zahmat kašidan kaš- to take trouble tul kašidan kaš- to last zang zadan zan- to ring زنگ زدت زن... zamin xordan xor- to fall زمين خوردن خور...

The non-verbal element may in some cases be a phrase beginning with a preposition (see 6/2):

be hám xordan xor- to fall apart به هم خوردن خور...

az beín raftan rav- to disappear

be kār bordan bar- to use

For the most part, the two elements of the compound verb stay together, at the end of the sentence or clause (see 8/4 for the definition of a clause):

. az bein nemi ravad از بين غي رود . It does not go away.

مرتبًا پیش می آمد. It occurred regularly.

be u komak nemi kardand. They did not help her.

kušeš nakarde ast. He has not tried.

do sāl tul naxāhad kašid. المولُّ نخواهد كشيد. It will not last two years.

Any direct-object pronoun suffix -am, -am, -et/-at (etc., see 4/3) is added to the non-verbal element:

بازش نكن. bāzeš nakon. Don't open it. بازش نكن. xeili dusteš dārim. We like it a lot.

With some compound verbs having a noun as non-verbal element, the compound may be interrupted by anything needed to complete the meaning, such as:

- an  $ez\bar{a}fe$  (3/5, 8) + noun, pronoun, or adjective, with or without a direct-object suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  (3/3), following the noun of the compound,
- a plural suffix (3/4), the indefinite suffix  $oldsymbol{c}$ ...-i (3/2) and/or the direct-object suffix  $oldsymbol{l}$   $oldsymbol{r}$   $oldsymbol{a}$  following the noun of the compound.

jor'ate šekāyat nadaštam. ا جرأت شكايت نداشتم. I didn't dare (to) complain.

javābe nāme rā nadādand.
They did not answer the letter.

امروز درس خیلی آسانی را داد. emruz darse xeili āsāni rā dād.

Today he taught a very easy lesson.

ا مى خوانيم؟ kodam darshā rā mi xānim? Which lessons are we studying?

زحمت زیاد کشیده است؟ راستی؟ چه زحمتی کشیده است؟ zahmate ziād kašide ast? rāsti? ce zahmati kašide ast?

He has taken a lot of trouble? Really? What trouble has he taken? With a few verbs, an *ezāfe* can also be added to the non-verbal element where this is other than a noun:

kašti vārede bandar šod. The ship entered the harbour. (وارد پندر شد vāred, adjective, 'entering')

Tenses and parts. In all tenses and parts, the compound verb is stressed in the affirmative on its non-verbal element, and in the negative on the negative prefix. While the non-verbal element of the compound verb remains unchanged, the verbal element forms its tenses and other parts in the usual manner, with the exception of the subjunctive tense and imperative:

- Infinitives. Long and short infinitives (5/2 above):
   peidā kardan/kard to find
- Stems, tenses, participles. Past and present stems and tenses (5/8, 10, 11), imperfect tense (5/13), present and past participles (5/20), perfect (5/21), perfect subjunctive (5/23), pluperfect (5/25) and future tenses (5/27):

ياد گرفتن گير... yād gereftan gir- to learn:

yād (na) gereftam I learnt/did not learn

yād (ne)mi giram I (do not) learn

yād (ne)mi gereftam یاد (نه)می کرفتم I was (not) learning

yād girande learning یاد گیرنده

yād gerefte learnt ياد گرفته

yād (na)gerefte am I have (not) learnt

yād (na)gerefte bāšam I might (not) learn

yād (na)gerefte budam I had (not) learn

# yād (na)xāham gereft ياد (نه)خواهم گرفت

 Subjunctive tense and imperative. In all compound verbs, including those whose verbal element is... اشتن دار daštan  $d\bar{a}r$ - 'to have', the subjunctive tense (5/16 above) is formed with

### present stem + personal endings

prefix ...: ná- (...نب náy- before a vowel) to the verbal element of the affirmative. The imperative is derived from the subjunctive in the normal manner (5/18):

guš kardan kon- to listen:

... guš konam/koni/konad...

I may listen (etc.)

guš nakonam/nakoni/nakonad... I may not listen (etc.)

guš (na)kon/(na)konid گوش (ن)كن\ (ن)كنيد (don't) listen

bāyad guš konid باید گوش کنید you must listen

These are the grammatically correct subjunctive forms for compound verbs. However, with many compound verbs the 'ordinary' subjunctive (i.e. with the بسابيي prefix) is also used in the subjunctive and/or in the imperative:

.... mu'āf kardan kon- to excuse معاف کردن کند..

bāyad u rā mu'āf بايد او را معاف كنيد \بكنيد. (bo)konid. You have to excuse him.

guš dādan deh- to listen: گوش دادن ده...

.xub guš bedehid. Listen well خوب گوش بدهید

One important exception is the rhetorical question, which usually has no subjunctive prefix in compound verbs:

kār kardan kon- to do کار کردن کند... ? من چه کار کنم mán ce kār konam? What can I do Polite forms. See 12/4 for the use of ... فرمودن فرما farma as the verbal element of many compound verbs in polite speech.

**Colloquial tenses.** See 5/15. For the colloquial continuous present and past tenses of compound verbs, the non-verbal element stays with the second component verb of the tense:

#### 30. Passive voice

A verb in the passive voice indicates not what its subject (see 5/4 above) *does* but what its subject *undergoes*. A simple English example of a passive expression is 'The letter is being written.'

In Persian the passive can be formed only if the original verb is capable of taking a direct object (see 5/6 above), which then becomes the subject of the passive expression. The passive is made with the formula

past participle + <u>مثدن شو ... šodan šav- 'to become'</u> (see 5/20 for the past participle). The verb شدن agrees with the subject in the normal way, and goes into the appropriate tense.

**Simple verbs.** For a simple verb (i.e. one with a one-word infinitive) the formula given above suffices. Tenses are formed as usual, allowing for an important difference in the subjunctive. Examples of tenses:

Past (5/8):

nāme nevešte šod.
The letter was written.

Present (5/10):

nāme nevešte mi šavad.
The letter is being written.

Perfect (5/21):

nāme nevešte šode ast. The letter has been written.

Future (5/27):

nāme nevešte xāhad šod. نامه نوشته خواهد شد. The letter will be written.

Subjunctive (5/16), the  $\dots$  be- prefix is usually omitted:

nāme bāyad nevešte šavad. The letter must be written.

Compound verbs. See 5/29 above. For compound verbs made with ... کردن کند.. kardan kon-, we replace this verb as a rule with the auxiliary شدن . In the examples given below, verbs are shown with the principal parts of their verbal element (5/10 above):

active (i.e. non-passive) گم کردن کند.. gom kardan kon- to lose, passive گم شدن شو... gom šodan šav- to be/get lost:

nāme gom šod. The letter was lost. nāme gom šode ast. The letter has been lost.

. غم شده باشد šāyad nāme gom šode bāšad. Perhaps the letter has been lost.

gom šou! Get lost! گم شو!

active ... عاب کردن کند.. cāp kardan kon- to print, passive ... چاپ شدن شو cāp šodan šav- to be printed:

āgahi diruz cāp šod. آگهی دیروز چاپ شد. The notice was printed yesterday.

In one or two verbs, کردن is replaced by another verb for the passive:

gul kardan kon- to deceive, گول کردن کند.. active gul xordan xor- to be deceived گول خوردن خور... passive

A similar thing occurs with other verbal elements of compound verbs, with certain verbs only:

anjām dādan deh- to achieve, passive انجام دادن دهـ.. anjām dādan deh- to achieved

active به هم زدن زنـ... be ham zadan zan- to disturb,

passive به هم خوردن خور... be ham xordan xor- to be disturbed But for most compound verbs made with verbs other than کردن, the verb of the compound is put into the past participle and the auxiliary شدن is added:

active آتش زدن زن... āteš zadan zan- to set on fire, passive آتش زده شدن شو... āteš zade šodan šav- to be set on fire: ماختمان اشتباهًا آتش زده شد. sāxtemān eštebāhan āteš zade šod. The building was accidentally set on fire.

active تصمیم گرقتن گیر... tasmim gereftan gir- to decide,
passive... تصمیم گرفته شدن شو
tasmim gerefte šodan šavto be decided

tasmim gerefte šod ke ... اتصمیم گرفته شد که ... It was decided that ...

The negative of the passive of all verbs, both simple and compound, is made by negating the auxiliary شدن in the normal manner, i.e.:

• prefixing ... iná- (stressed) to the auxiliary in the past tense, imperative, perfect, perfect subjunctive, pluperfect and future tenses:

نامه امروز نوشته نشد. nāme emruz nevešte nášod.
The letter was not written today.

gom nášou! Don't get lost! گم نشو!

pul hanuz peidā nášode ast.

The money has not yet been found.

tasmim gerefte nášode bud. It had not been decided.

nāme emruz emzā náxāhad نامه امروز امضا نخواهد شد. šod. The letter will not be signed today.

• prefixing ... i né-/ná- (stressed) to the auxiliary in the

present and the imperfect tenses:

نامه امروز فرستاده غی شود. nāme emruz ferestāde némi šavad. The letter is not being/will not be sent today.

Several things are worth noting about the Persian passive in general:

- All the parts of the passive verb stay together, usually at the end of the sentence or clause (see 8/4 for the definition of a clause).
- Although we can add to the passive verb the instrument with which an action was done:

بنجره با آجر شکسته شد. panjare bā ājor šekaste šod.

The window was broken with a brick.

we cannot add the person by whom it was done. The correct rendering of 'The window was broken by a thief' in Persian is with an active sentence:

dozdi panjare rā šekast. A thief broke the window.

 We cannot make a passive of the English type 'I was given a present'; only the direct object may become the subject of the passive verb. This sentence is best expressed in Persian impersonally:

hadiye be man dādand.

They gave me a present.

or, more heavily, a passive with the old direct object 'a present' as subject of the passive verb:

هدیه به من داده شد. A present was given to me.

- The versatile nature of some past participles can cause confusion. Contrast these sentences containing the past participle www.baste 'closed':
  - Active verb, perfect tense:

تاجر دكان را بسته است. tājer dokkān rā baste ast.

The merchant has closed the shop.

#### 5 - Verbs

- Past participle used as an adjective, indicating a state, not an action:
  - من بسته است. dokkān baste ast. The shop is closed.
- Passive verb, perfect tense:
  - dokkān baste šode ast.

The shop has been (and still is) closed.

# 6. Prepositions

#### 1. General

A preposition shows the relationship between the noun (3/1) or pronoun (4/1) following it and the rest of the sentence. The preposition is said to *govern* its noun or pronoun:

See 4/4 for the use of prepositions with personal pronouns.

#### 2. Basic prepositions

Persian has few basic prepositions. They are all short words, and are all followed directly by the expression which they govern:

از az from, by, through, since, than be to به bar on (figuratively)
اب bā with, despite بی bi without
از tā as far as, until بی joz except
در cun like

dar kelāse sevvom in Class Three ('in the third class')

با آنها رفتم. bā ānhā raftam. I went with them.

تا گوشه رفتند و ایستادند. tā guše raftand va istādand.

They went as far as the corner and stopped/stood.

دیروز به شهر رسید. diruz be šahr rasid.

He/She arrived in ('to') town yesterday.

از من نام و نشانیم را پرسیدند. az man nām va nešāniam rā porsidand. They asked ('from') me my name and address.

#### Note:

• We also encounter ...... be- (with no a) joined to the next

word, in older printed and handwritten Persian:

به فرودگاه (earlier, بفرودگاه) be forudgāh to the airport به فرودگاه) be ānhā to them

The combinations به آن be in 'to this, to these' and به آن be  $\bar{a}n$  'to that, to those' have also the less frequent alternative forms بدين bedin and بدين bedin.

See 6/6 below for more about be in everyday speech.

• The preposition *bi* 'without' is often written as a joined prefix in compound words (11/2, 3):

بیکار bikār ('without work') unemployed بیکاری bikāri unemployment بیکاری bicāre ('without remedy') helpless بیچارگی bicāregi helplessness

 Some important compound prepositions are formed with these basic ones:

piš az/qabl az before پیش از\قبل از ba'd az/pas az after raje' be conceming بنا بر banā bar in accordance with

 Some of the commoner basic prepositions are used together with an abstract noun to form adverbs (7/2):

به ندرت be nodrat rarely در نتیجه dar natije consequently

• See 5/6 for prepositional objects after verbs.

See 6/3 below for more about dar. See 3/9 for dar and dar tar meaning 'than'.

## ezāfe اضافه Prepositions with

Many prepositions are followed by the *ezāfe* (see Appendix II). These are mostly other parts of speech, or compounds made with other parts of speech, used as prepositions.

All these are best learned together with the ezāfe which follows

them. Essential ones include:

\*توي tuye in(to) barāye (bare) for يراي bedune without بدون ruye on روی jelouye in front of جلوي agabe behind عقب piše in front of pošte behind پشت dāxele inside داخل xāreje outside tarafe towards (a place) پیش piše towards (a person) be jāye instead of به جای bā vojude in spite of با وجود bālāve above بالاي zire below زير he sahahe because of به سبب dar hāreye concerning در بارة dar kenāre along در كنار sare on top of سر beine between در میان dar miāne among .barāye baccehā dorosteš kardam براي بچه ها درستش كردم. I made it for the children.

مانه صدایی نیست. dāxele xāne sedāi nist.
Inside the house there is no sound.

gāhi piše pedaram mi āmad.
Sometimes he came to my father.

من من ایستد. من otobus jelouye sefārat اتوبوس جلوی سفارت می ایستد. mi istad. The bus stops in front of the embassy.

\*نوى tuye is often used in everyday speech instead of رdar (3/2 above) for 'in(to)', with literal or physical meaning. For figurative meaning, and with names of towns and countries, dar is used in speech as in writing:

tuye xāneaš in his/her house توى خانه اش dozd tuye kuce farār kard.
The thief fled up ('into') the alley.

but: در این حال dar in hāl in this case/this instance در شیراز\در ایران dar širāz/dar irān in Shiraz/in Iran

#### 4. Prepositions and conjunctions

A preposition governs a noun or pronoun; a conjunction introduces a clause, which is a group of words making at least limited sense

### 6 - Prepositions

and centred on a verb with its subject (see 8/4). It is important not to confuse the two types of word or expression, especially as in some cases (in Persian or in English) they may be similar. Typical pairs, with references for the conjunctions, are:

Preposition + noun/pronoun	Conjunction + clause
قبل ان qabl az before	قبل از اینکه <i>qabl az inke</i> before
قبل از مذاکره	فبل از اینکه بروید
qabl az mozākere	qabl az inke beravid
before the conference	before you go/went 8/9
بعد ا <u>ن</u> ba'd az after	بعد از اینکه ba'd az inke after
بعد از درس	بعد از اینکه رسیدند
ba'd az dars	ba'd az inke rasidand
after the lesson	after they arrive(d) 8/9
<u>به سبب</u> <i>be sababe</i> because of	برای اینکه barāye inke because
به سبب آن	برای اینکه فراموش کرد
be sababe ān	barāye inke farāmuš kard
because of that	because he forgot 8/10
در صورت dar surate in case of	در صورتی که dar surati ke if, in case
dar surate in case of	
در صورت اشكال	در صورتی که اشکال باشد
dar surate eškāl	dar surati ke eškāl bāšad
in case of difficulty	if/in case there is difficulty 8/11

The most important types of clause, including those introduced by the conjunctions shown above, are explained in 8/5 to 13.

## 5. Prepositions governing other expressions

A preposition can also govern an expression of time or place, where the meaning permits:

in rā be bālā behar. Take this upstairs.

## 6 - Prepositions

tā hālā šekāyati nabude ast.
Until now there has been no complaint.

az injā dur ast ‹e›. It is far from here.

## 6. Omission of 4. be

In colloquial language it is common, in simple sentences with a verb of motion, to omit the preposition 4, be 'to' and to put the verb before the destination:

«mi ram manzel». I'm going home. الله من منزل. «kei mi ānd širāz»?
When are they coming to Shiraz?



širāz - ārāmgāhe hāfez Shiraz - Hafez' Tomb

## 7. Adverbs

### 1. General

Adverbs are words which are said to 'modify' a verb (5/1), an adjective (3/6), or another adverb. They state or ask in what manner or circumstances the verb, adjective or other adverb applies:

injā zendegi mi konand.
They live here.

ayā tehrān xeili bozorg ast?
Is Tehran very big?

u kami behtar mi xānad.
He reads a little better.

## 2. Forming adverbs

Most adverbs of *manner* (i.e. those showing how a verb applies) and many adverbs of *time* (showing when a verb applies) are identical to the adjectives with related meaning. Compare adjective and adverb:

kāreš xub ast. His/Her work is good.

xub kār mi konad. He/She works well.

Similarly: زود مي رسند. zud mi rasand. They are arriving soon.

āheste harf mi zanad. اهسته حرف می زند. He/She talks slowly.

mo'allem tond mi nevisad.
The teacher writes fast.

بد گذشت. bad gozašt. It went off badly.

u ketāb ziād dust dārad. She likes books a lot.

tanhā zendegi mi konad. He/She lives alone.

mozākere šešmāhe mon'aqed مذاكره ششماهه منعقد مى شود.
mi šavad The conference is held six-monthly.

Some adverbs have the form of a phrase:

با دقت bā deqqat accurately ('with accuracy') با هم bā ham together ما daste kam at least دست کم be zudí quickly به زودی be viže especially

A few adjectives have to add **!...** -āne to become adverbs of manner:

خوشبختانه xošbaxt lucky خوشبختانه xošbaxtāne fortunately بدبختانه badbaxtāne unfortunately بدبختانه hadbaxtāne unfortunately متأسف متاسف mota(')assefāne regretfully

Other types of adverbs (adverbs of place, adverbs of degree, and some adverbs of time; there is no need to distinguish, as they can all be studied together) do not for the most part have related adjectives. Important adverbs of these types include:

injā here انتجا ānjā there انحا intour/conin آنطُور\چنان āntour/conān اینطور\چنین thus, like this, so thus, like that. thus, like that, so ānvaqt then آنوقت hālā/aknun now حالا\اكنون xeili/besyār very کم\کمی kam(i) (a) little ham also هم hamiše always هميشه hicvaqt/hargez never (with negative verb) gāhi/ba'zi ouqāt/ba'zi vaqthā گاهي\بعضي اوقات\بعضي وقتها sometimes *bārhā* often hargāh everywhere هرگاه hic jā nowhere (with negative verb) birun outside داخل dāxel inside jelou/piš forward(s) عقب aqab back(wards) *pāin* down يايين bālā up (یك) قدری (yek) qadri a little

### 7 - Adverbs

بالا نكاه نكن. bālā negāh nakon. Don't look up.

... چنان خراب شد که conān xarāb šod ke ...

It was so (badly) damaged that ...

in ašxās hamiše doruq اين اشخاص هميشه دروغ مي گويند. mi guyand. These people always lie.

birun kasi hast. بيرون كسى هست.

There's someone outside.

... gāhi ettefāq mi oftād ke ... Sometimes it happened that ...

ا پیدا نشد. hic jā peidā našod. ('It was found nowhere.') It was nowhere to be found.

این جور پیشنهاد را هیچوقت قبول نمی کنید.

in jur pišnehād rā hicvagt gabul nemi konid. You will never accept a proposal of this kind.

Adverbs beginning with ... in- and  $\bar{a}n$  can be strengthened word:

háminjā zendegi mi kardand. They used to live (just) here.

مينطور خوب است. «hámintour xub e.» Just like that is fine.

Many adverbs taken from Arabic end in the form \( \int\_{\cdots} \) an (stressed; see also 1/23); those derived from a word ending in .... drop this ending before ....

maxsusan especially مخصوصاً omuman publicly عمومًا tamāman completely ma'mulan usually معمولاً

> gablan previously قبلأ šaxsan personally شخصاً

xosusan privately خصوصاً tagriban approximately تقريبًا sābegan formerly سابقًا

hatman certainly حتماً

ba'dan afterwards عداً

aslan essentially اصلاً gāleban mostly غالثا

The adverbial numbers shown in 9/6 ( avvalan 'firstly' etc.) also belong to this group.

Those adverbs derived from words ending in -at or in -e +

silent • (1/15) replace this ending with U... -atán:

nesbatan relatively نسبتًا haqiqatan in truth حقيقتًا aā'edatan as a rule قاعدتًا

The forms in  $\[ \vec{\mathbf{c}} \]$ ... -atan are now less common; for most of them a phrase is preferred:

dar haqiqat in truth در حقیقت be neshat relatively به نسبت Also, in older texts and in some dictionaries we still find the original Arabic spelling of -atan, أسبةً , حقيقةً )... ( نسبةً , حقيقةً ).

Some important phrases are taken from Arabic, many of them serving as adverbs of manner. They tend to keep their Arabic spelling. Important ones are:

alān ‹alón› now الآن fougal'āde exceptionally فوق العاده felfour immediately في الفور belaxere finally بالأخره بالاخره It is simplest to learn these as vocabulary, transcribing each as a single word.

Some noun expressions of time operate as adverbs. There is usually no preposition, and often the noun is plural:

ruze jom'e āmadošod kam ast. روز جمعه امدوشد كم است. (On) Friday the traffic is slight.

sobhhā zud bidār mi šavim. صبحها زود بيدار مى شويم. (In the) morning we wake early.

بعد از ظهرها مردم پیر استراحت می کنند. ba'd az zohrhā mardome pir esterāhat mi konand. (In the) afternoon(s) the old people rest.

> sā'ate cand mi rasand? (At) what time are they arriving?

Adverbs modifying an adjective in a construction with ezāfe interrupt the construction (see 3/8):

in mas 'aleye xeili/hesyār mohem این مسئلهٔ خیلی\بسیار مهم this very important problem

ketābe kami moškeli st. کتاب کمی مشکلی است. It is a rather difficult book.

### 3. Comparative and superlative of adverbs

See 3/9, 10. An adverb whose meaning permits it can be made comparative and superlative. The comparative form is the same as for adjectives:

u behtar az digarān kār او بهتر از دیگران کار می کند. mi konad. He/She works better than the others.

dar in maqāze arzāntar در این مغازه ارزانتر می فروشند.
mi forušand. They sell more cheaply in this shop.

Equal comparison is expressed with 4.9 be and an abstract noun, following the formula shown in 3/9:

پروین به سرعت بچههای بزرگتر (نـ)میدود.

parvin be sor'ate baccehāye bozorgtar (ne)mi davad.

Parvin runs/doesn't run as fast as (the) older ('bigger') children.

For the superlative, we use \(\begin{aligned} \alpha & \alpha \) \(\alpha \) az hame with the comparative:

آنها از همه زودتر رسیدند. ānhā az hame zudtar rasidand.
They arrived the earliest ('sooner than all').

as ... as possible. The idiom 'as ... as possible' is expressed in Persian with <u>هر چه</u> + the comparative, هر چه har ce -tar: هر چه زودتر بیا.

har ce zudtar biā.

Come as quickly as possible.

## 4. Interrogative adverbs

Important interrogative adverbs are:

ceta why چطور kei where چطور kei when

cand vaqt for how long چند وقت ceqadr how greatly چند وقت in rā cetour dorost mi konand?

How do they make this?

ا همکارتان کی بر می گردد؟ hamkāretān kei bar mi gardad?
When is your colleague returning?

الديد؟ kojā dars xāndid? Where did you study? See 8/2 for the order of words in the question.

### 5. Order of adverbs

When adverbs of different types occur in a sentence, the three main types appear in the order *time-manner-place*. A simple mnemonic for this is the word *tempo*.

emruz tanhā birun raftam. Today I went out alone.

## 6. Adverbial participles

The commonest participles are verbal adjectives (5/20), used as adjectives or nouns, or to form the perfect tenses. Persian has also adverbial participles (also called participles of manner), derived from the verb on the formula present stem + -an (see 5/10 for the present stem). The adverbial participle expresses an action or state accompanying the verb.

.... خندیدن خند... xandidan xand- to laugh:

.... خندان گفت... She said, with a laugh ('laughing')... This form of participle is not common.



taxte jamšid Persepolis

# 8. Syntax

### 1. General

Chapters 3 to 7 and Chapters 9 and 12 cover those points of syntax (i.e. sentence structure) which can conveniently be covered there; this chapter covers only those points which cannot.

### 2. Questions

Questions expecting the answer 'yes' or 'no'. A statement is made into a question of this sort by adding the particle  $\tilde{a}y\bar{a}$  at the beginning, and raising the voice briefly on the stressed syllable of the word which is questioned, then dropping it again slightly. The order of words in the rest of the sentence does not change:

mi farmāid? Do you speak English?

\* Polite speech, see 12/4.

In speech it is common to omit the particle  $\bar{Q}$   $\bar{q}$ 

and/or to add  $\vec{u}$   $\vec{v}$   $\vec{v}$ 

In reply to a negative question, 'yes' is \$\frac{1}{\sigma} c\textit{e}r\tal{a}\$:

hāzer nistid? - cerā (hāzeram). Aren't you ready? - Yes (1 am).

'No' is نغير na, or more emphatically نخير náxeir:

? (است مست رسیده (است) post raside (ast)? Has the mail arrived? - naxeir, hanuz naraside. - No, not yet.

Questions expecting a contrary yes-no answer are often introduced by  $m\acute{a}gar$ , which implies 'really ...?'. The particle  $\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  is then dropped. The intonation is the same as for a normal yes-no question:

? magar šomā naraftid? Did you (really) not go مگر شما نرفتید (negative question, expecting the answer 'yes')

? magar šomā raftid? Did you (really) go (affirmative question, expecting the answer 'no')

Note the first-syllable stress on  $\acute{a}y\bar{a}$ ,  $b\acute{a}le$ ,  $c\acute{e}r\bar{a}$ ,  $n\acute{a}xeir$  and  $m\acute{a}gar$ .

Questions not expecting the answer 'yes' or 'no'. Questions other than yes-no questions focus on the appropriate interrogative word or expression. The word or expression may be an interrogative adjective with its noun (3/13), an interrogative pronoun (4/7) or an interrogative adverb (7/4). For convenience the main ones are listed here also:

adjectives: کدام kodām kodum which چه ce what (kind of) cetour/cegune/ce jur/ce nou' چطور\چه نوع what kind of

cand how much/many چند

جه دو ﴿ ce ﴿ ci› what عي دو «ci› what مال کي مال کي مال کي pronouns:

kei when کجا kojā where کی cetour how چطور adverbs:

cand vaqt (for) how long.

In such questions the interrogative word or expression stands

immediately before the verb or before any adverb(s) accompanying the verb. Let  $cer\bar{a}$  'why' and Let ki 'who' are exceptions; they usually begin the question. The voice rises momentarily on the stressed syllable of the interrogative word:

او چطور مدیریست؟ u cetour modirist? What sort of a manager is he?

in be šomā cetour komak این به شما چطور کمك میکند؟
«mi kone»? How does that ('this') help you?

برای تعطیلات کجا می روند؟ خmi rand>? Where are they going for their holiday?

ki be šomā intour goft? کی به شما اینطور گفت؟ Who told you so?

? پرا حساب را قبول نکرد به cerā hesāb rā qabul nakard? Why didn't he accept the account(s)?

با کی کار دارید؟ bā ki kār dārid? ('With whom do you have business?') Whom do you want?

## 3. Indirect speech

Direct speech is the words of the original speaker quoted verbatim. It is usually shown in quotation marks in English: He said 'I am ill.' It presents no problem in Persian, though the quotation marks are often missing:

. goft marizam. He/She said 'l am ill.'

Indirect speech (also called reported speech) does not quote verbatim; it paraphrases. The indirect-speech form of the English sentence shown above would be: He said that he was ill.

Indirect speech can be divided into indirect statement, indirect question and indirect command.

Indirect statement. Examples of Persian indirect statement:

mi guyad ke mariz ast.

He/She says (that) he/she is ill.

goft ke mariz ast.
He/She said that he/she was ill.

گزارش دادند که معلم غایب بود.

gozāreš dādand ke mo'allem qāyeb bud.

They reported that the teacher had been ('was') absent.

دوباره گفتند که خواهند آمد. dobāre goftand ke xāhand āmad.
They repeated that they would ('will') come.

# محمد نوشت که درو عالی بوده (است).

mohammad nevešt ke derou āli bude (ast).

Mohammad wrote that the harvest had been ('has been') excellent.

Things to note:

- The conjunction & ke 'that' cannot properly be left out, as can 'that' in English. In everyday speech some Iranians drop it; but not consistently, and it is risky to imitate this until one is sure of the context.
- The tense of the verb is that of the original direct speech.

The indirect statement construction applies not only to statements depending on verbs of speech proper, but also to facts or alleged facts depending on verbs of perception or feeling, as in English:

أييد. fekr mi kardim ke nemi āid. We thought you weren't coming.

mi dānestand «mi dunestand» ke مى دانستند كه دروغ مى گويد.

doruq mi guyad «mi ge». They knew he was lying.

yaqin dāram ke gom mi šavad يقين دارم كه گم مى شود. «mi še». I am certain it will be lost.

\* senidam ke pesaretān bar gaštand. ا شنیدم که پسرتان بر گشتند\*.

I heard that your son had returned.

\* Polite speech, see 12/3.

Indirect question. Direct questions are examined in 8/2 above. Indirect questions follow the same general rules as indirect statements. Indirect questions of the 'yes-no' type are introduced by  $\lim_{x \to a} \hat{a}y\bar{a}$  or  $\lim_{x \to a} \hat{a}y\bar{a}$ , both meaning 'whether'. Often both introductory words are left out, and/or the expression  $\lim_{x \to a} y\bar{a}$  ná 'or not' (see 8/2 above) is added:

برسیدم (که) آیا او مریض است. porsidam (ke) āyā u mariz عدد مریض است.

پرسیدم مریض است یا نه. Jasked whether he/she was ill.

Other questions are introduced by the appropriate interrogative word or by **\(\delta\)** plus the interrogative word:

پرسیدم (که) کی می آیند. porsidam (ke) kei mi āyand «mi ānd». I asked when they were coming.

پرسیدم چرا استعفا می دهد. porsidam cerā este'fā mi dehad. I asked why he was resigning.

Indirect questions occur also after verbs of statement, perception or feeling:

شرح دادم چرا استعفا می دهم. \*\*sarh dādam cerā este'fā

mi deham. I explained why I was resigning.

mi dānid cerā este'fā dāde ast? می دانید چرا استعفا داده است؟

Do you know why he has resigned?

ا غی فهمم چطور شد. nemi fahmam cetour šod.
I don't understand how it happened ('became').

Indirect command. Direct command or request is the imperative, explained in 5/18. Indirect command or request is expressed with (<u>&</u> +) subjunctive (5/16) observing the formula 'I asked that he should ...':

afsar be sarbāzān farmud ke hamle konand. The officer ordered the troops to attack ('that they attack').

خواهش کردم (که) زود تشریف بیاورند\*.

xāheš kardam (ke) zud tašrif biāvarand «biāran». I asked him/her to come ('that he/she should come') soon.

\* Polite speech, see 12/4.

## 4. Clauses - general

In 8/5 to 13 below, and elsewhere, there is reference to *clauses*. A clause is a group of words making at least partial sense, centred

on a verb (5/1) with its subject (4/2, 5/4). We distinguish between a main clause, which usually makes complete sense, and a dependent clause, which usually adds meaning to the main clause (or to another dependent clause) and makes only limited sense by itself. In the English sentence 'This is the house that Jack built' the first four words are the main clause, the last three a dependent clause describing 'house'. A dependent clause is almost always introduced by a conjunction (or another part of speech acting as a conjunction); in some circumstances this may be omitted. We examine below noun clauses, relative clauses and clauses of purpose, result, time, reason, condition, concession and manner.



māhān - doxtarāne javān Mahan - Young girls

### 5. Noun clauses

See 8/4 above. Examine the sentences:

مکن است (که) بیاید. *momken ast (ke) biāyad ‹biād›*. It is possible (that) he may come.

ي**قين** نيست كه بلد باشند. yaqin nist ke balad bāšand.
It is not certain that they are aware (of it).

The clause introduced by ke in these examples is a noun clause, so called because it is an extended subject of the verb ast or ast or nist: 'that he may come' is possible; 'that they are aware of it' is uncertain. The verb in the noun clause itself is in the subjunctive (see 5/16) because it is an idea, not a fact. The formula is therefore k + subjunctive.

After some common expressions such as عكن است momken ast 'lt is possible', the conjunction که ke may be omitted. It is safest for our purposes to keep it.

In sentences with noun clauses, the main clause may express the attitude of the speaker to the prospect or situation:

heif ast ke barf nabāšad. حيف است كه برف نباشد.

It's a pity (that) there is ('should be') no snow.

Here the absence of the snow is a fact; but the verb inabāšad stands in the subjunctive because it is the idea itself, fact or not, which is regretted.

The noun clause may in other examples be the *object* of the main verb:

xošvaqtim (ke) biāyad ‹biād›.

We are pleased (that) he is coming.

omidvāram (ke) zud berasand.
ا hope they arrive soon.

ناراحتم كه بچه ها تنها بمانند. nārāhatam ke baccehā tanhā bemānand. l am uneasy that the children should remain alone.

أيا مى ترسيدند كه بيمارى منتشر شود؟ āyā mi tarsidand ke bimāri montašer šavad? Did they fear the sickness would spread? Sentiments such as 'I am anxious that ... not' are also expressed with ... not' are also expressed with ترسيدن ترسيدن ترسيدن ترسيدن ترسيدن ترسيدن ترسيدن ترسيدن الله subjunctive. The verb is affirmative; the negative is contained in the conjunction مبادا mabādā 'lest':

mi tarsam mabādā mariz bešavid. مى ترسم مبادا مريض بشويد. ا am anxious that you should not fall ill ('lest you fall ill').

(For the record, the clauses of indirect speech, see 8/3 above, are also grammatically speaking noun-object clauses; but it is simpler to restrict the term 'noun clauses' to the type shown here.)

### 6. Relative clauses

See 8/4 above. In a sentence such as 'The man who wrote this became famous' the clause 'who wrote this' is a *relative* clause, relating to, identifying or describing an *antecedent* which is in this case the noun 'man'. The relative clause is introduced by a *relative* pronoun (also known as a relative conjunction).

The common English relative pronouns are 'who', 'whom', 'which', 'that', 'whose'. In some sentences they can be omitted: 'The book (which) I bought ...' The Persian relative pronoun is ke (sometimes  $ext{length} ce$ ), and in principle it is not omitted.

**Noun antecedents.** In the commonest kind of relative sentence the antecedent is a noun, and carries the suffix c.... This is the relative  $-i^*$ , which is distinct from the indefinite  $-i^*$  explained in 3/2, but it is written in the same manner. It has no effect on the stress of the word.

- مردی که این را نوشت معروف شد. mardi ke in rā nevešt
  ma'ruf šod. The man who wrote this became famous.
- حزبی که آن برنامه را قبول می کند حتماً انتخاب می شود.

  hezbi ke ān barnāme rā qabul mi konad hatman entexāb mi šavad.

  The party which adopts that programme will certainly be elected.

  In these examples, both the antecedent and the relative که are the subject of their respective verbs. When either one is the direct object

(5/6) of its verb, we can add, optionally, the direct-object suffix

 برنامهٔ جدیدی (را) که حزب قبول کرد بیفایده به نظر می آید. barnāmeye jadidi (rā) ke hezb qabul kard bifāyede be nazar mi āyad. The new programme which the party has adopted seems useless.

لات. (را) که خریدم مفید است. ketābi (rā) ke xaridam
mofīd ‹e›. The book (which) I bought is useful.

In sentences with the pattern 'This is the person who ...', the first verb is put at the end of its own clause, separating the antecedent from the relative **\(\mathcal{L}\)**:

in šaxsi st ke diruz āmad.

This is the person who came yesterday.

([ این شخصی که دیروز آمد است.] not:

in ketābi st ke man xaridam.

This is the book (which) I bought.

\* The uses of the suffixes c... -i and  $\int r\bar{a}$  are summarised in Appendices III and IV respectively.

Prepositional or possessive relative. See 6/2, 3 and 3/11. A relative clause with prepositional or possessive relationship ('to whom', 'from which', 'whose' etc. in English) is still introduced in Persian with , but we put the appropriate preposition or possessive adjective in the relative clause. The preposition gets its own 'repeat' pronoun:

پسری که به او نامه را دادم بر گشته است. pesari ke be u ‹ke beš› nāme rā dādam bar gašte ast. The boy to

pesari ke be uke bes name ra dadam har gaste ast. The boy to whom I gave the letter ('who I gave the letter to him') has returned.

این خاندایست که در آن زندگی می کرد.

in xāneist ke dar ān zendegi mi kard.

This is the house in which ('which in it') he/she lived.

با بچههایی که مادر آنها \مادرشان مریض شد صحبت کرده ایم. bā baccehāi ke mādare ānhā/mādarešān mariz šod sohbat karde im. We have spoken to the children whose mother ('who their mother') has fallen ill.

دزدی(را)که دنبالش دویدند گرفته اند یا نه؟

dozdi (ra) ke dombāleš davidand gerefte and yā na? Have they caught the thief they ran after? **Pronoun antecedents.** Relative expressions with pronoun antecedents mostly differ from those with noun antecedents, and are best learned by example.

آنهایی که ānhāi ke 'those who' is the only example of a pronoun antecedent following completely the noun-antecedent model:

ānhāi ke intour آنهایی که اینطور فکر میکنند دیوانه هستند. fekr mi konand divāne hastand. Those who think so are mad.

ānhāi rā ke napardāxtand آنهایی را که نپرداختند قبول غیکنیم. qabul nemi konim. We shall not accept those who did not pay.

أنهايى كه بليط داشتند داخل شدند. ānhāi ke belit dāštand dāxel šodand. Those who had a ticket came in.

The following pronoun antecedents have the relative pronoun & ke for persons and ce for things; there is no relative -i. Note the alternative spellings. Apart from these points, the rules for noun antecedents apply. Each antecedent is shown with its relative pronoun:

هر که an ke he who هر که an ke whoever هر چه an ce that which, what هر چه an ce whatever an ce it is a size of an ce whatever an ce whatever

ān ke/har ke intour mi guyad eštebāh mi konad. He who/Whoever says that ('thus') is mistaken.

آنچه مرا ناراحت می کند بیکاری جوانان است.

ān ce marā nārāhat mi konad bikāriye javānan ast. What ('That which') worries me is youth unemployment.

har ce meil mi farmāid bebarid.

Take whatever you want.

\* Polite speech, see 12/4.

**Non-identifying relatives.** The relative expressions examined above are all 'identifying' relatives. By contrast, a non-identifying relative clause does not single out the antecedent; it merely gives some information about it. There is no relative -i. Examine:

... in āmuzgār ke barādaram ast این اموزگار که برادرم است ... ... This teacher, who is my brother, ...

# اصفهان که آنوقت پایتخت کشور بود ...

esfahan ke ānvaqt pāitaxte kešvar bud ...

Isfahan, which at that time was the capital of the country, ...

az āqāye hayavi ke ra'ise komite budand porsidand.

They asked Mr Hayavi, who was the chairman of the committee. In the last sentence, & ke 'who' implies 'because he' or 'who, as we know, ...'.

**Relative with subjunctive.** When it is not certain that the relative clause reflects a fact, it is common to put its verb in the subjunctive (5/16). There is no relative -i; the -i of the following examples is *indefinite*, not *relative*:

آیا کسی هست که فارسی بلد باشد؟ āyā kasi hast ke fārsi balad bāšad? Is there someone who knows Persian?

دد. kasi nist ke be išān کسی نیست که به ایشان کمك کند. komak konad. There is nobody who will/nobody to help them.

man šāgerdāni من شاگردانی میخواهم که خوب کار کنند. mi xāham ke xub kār konand. I want pupils who (will) work well. Contrast this last sentence expressing an uncertainty with a similar sentence expressing a fact, in which the verb stands in a non-

در این کلاس شاگردانی هستند که خوب کار میکنند. dar in kelās šāgerdāni hastand ke xub kar mi konand. In this class there are pupils who work well.

subjunctive tense:

**Emphatic** *ke*. In colloquial language we can add a non-identifying *ke* after a noun or pronoun, for emphasis or simply to announce the subject. The sentence has an air of protest, and the *ke* has no relative meaning at all:

«xosrou ke dige rafte.›
 Khosrow - he's gone.
 «mā ke nemi dunim dige.›
 Well, we don't know.

## 7. Clauses of purpose

See 8/4 above. Clauses showing with what purpose the action of the main verb is or was performed are introduced by one of the conjunctions

برای اینکه barāye inke so that برای اینکه mahādā lest, so that ... not که ke (less common) so that The verb in the purpose clause stands in the subjunctive (5/16):

zud beravid tā/barāye زود بروید تا\برای اینکه سر وقت برسید. inke sare vaqt berasid. Go quickly so that you arrive on time.

xub benevisid mabādā farāmuš konid. Write (it) properly ('well') so that you do not forget. In English we can often express purpose with 'in order to' and an infinitive; in Persian we have to have a subject plus verb, i.e. a clause:

مبر کردیم تا \که وزیر را ببینیم. sabr kardim tā/ke vazir rā
bebinim. We waited in order to ('so that we might') see the minister.

### 8. Clauses of result

See 8/4 above. Clauses showing the result of the action of the main verb are introduced by one of the conjunctions

ينان ... كه conān ... ke so ... that

anqadr ... ke so much ... that

in which the first element stands in the main clause and the **\(\delta\)** heads the result clause:

conān tambal bud ke exrāj šod. خنان تنبل بود که اخراج شد.
He was so lazy that he got sacked.

آنقدر شکایت کردند که هیچکس دیگر گوش نداد. ānqadr šekāyat kardand ke hickas digar guš nadād. They complained so much that nobody listened any more.

دزد چنان تند دوید که زمین خورد. dozd conān tond david ke zamin xord. The thief ran so fast that he fell.

The verb in the result clause is in a non-subjunctive tense, because it expresses a fact.

### 9. Clauses of time

See 8/4 above. Time clauses show when the action of the main verb takes or took place. The conjunctions introducing time clauses are best studied in groups:

These conjunctions are usually followed by the past tense (5/8), irrespective of the timing. The time clause begins the sentence:

When we heard the news we were astonished.

mouqe'ike ali rasid موقعيكه على رسيد به من خبر بده\*. be man xabar bedeh. When Ali arrives, tell me.

ba'd az inke raftid telefon mi konam. After you have gone I shall telephone.

vaqti ke māšin āmad وقتى كه ماشين آمد حركت كرديم. harakat kardim. When the car came/had come we set off.

\* See 1/15. Final & in this word is part of the root, and therefore not silent.

In terse statements in everyday speech, the conjunction is sometimes omitted from 'when' clauses:

(See 5/9, second indent, for this use of the past tense in the main clause).

az vaqtike/az vaqti ke since از وقتی که ۱ After this conjunction the verb stands in the present tense (5/10). The time clause begins the sentence:

از وقتیکه اینجا کار می کنم اعتصابی نداشته ایم. az vaqtike injā kār mi konam e'tesābi nadāšte im. Since I have worked here we have had no strike(s).

har vaqt (ke)
 har mouqe' (ke)

whenever

These conjunctions are followed either by the past tense, or by the imperfect tense (5/13) for repeated actions, regardless of the timing. The time clause begins the sentence:

هر وقت (که) او را دیدید به من بگویید. u rā didid be man beguid. Whenever you see him, tell me.

هر وقت (که) او را می دیدند می دویدند.

har vaqt (ke) u rā mi didand mi davidand. Every time they saw him they used to run.

These conjunctions can also mean 'if ever' or 'if and when'; see 8/11.

qabl az inke قبل از اینکه و qabl az inke
 piš az inke before

These conjunctions are followed by the subjunctive tense (5/16), irrespective of the timing. The time clause begins the sentence:

gabl az inke قبل از اینکه بروید این را امضا کنید. beravid in rā emzā konid. Before you go, sign this.

وبل از اینکه برود این را امضا کرد. adbl az inke beravad in rā emzā kard. Before he went he signed this.

• ke when, as, as soon as

This conjunction is used in two ways:

 after the subject of the time clause. The subject must be stated, with a pronoun if necessary:

أنها كه مى رسند شروع مى كنيم. ānhā ke mi rasand šoru' mi konim. When they arrive we shall begin.

محمد که حاضر شد رفتند. mohammad ke hāzer šod raftand. As soon as Mohammad was ready they went.

heading the time clause when it follows the main clause,

especially when one action interrupts or overlaps another:

jalase rā šoru' karde budim ke sedāye sute āteš šenide šod. We had started the meeting when the ('noise of the') fire alarm was heard.

In a sentence of this kind, in Persian as in English, our attention focuses not on the main clause but on the time clause. This structure can also be seen in the last Persian example of 5/14.

- tā until/till; as long as
   This conjunction is used in the following ways in time clauses:
  - 'until/till': the time clause follows the main clause, and its verb stands in the subjunctive for present or future time and in the past tense for past time:

injā sahr konid tā doktor اینجا صبر کنید تا دکتر بیاید. biāyad ‹biād›. Wait here until the doctor comes.

sabr kardam tā doktor āmad. ا سبر کردم تا دکتر آمد. ا waited till the doctor came.

- 'as long as': the time clause stands first:

تا اینجا کار می کنید این را فراموش نکنید. tā injā kār mi konid in rā farāmuš nakonid. As long as you work here, don't forget this.

### 10. Clauses of reason

See 8/4 above. Clauses of reason show why the main verb happens or happened. The introductory conjunctions for such clauses are:

يراى اينكه barāye inke is by far the most common of these conjunctions in everyday Persian. It follows the main clause, as does غيراكه zirā ke. The conjunctions يراكه cunke ‹conke› can either begin the sentence or follow the main clause. The tense in the reason clause is that demanded by the meaning of the sentence:

nemi tavānand biāyand غی توانند بیایند برای اینکه مریضند.
«nemi tunand biānd» barāye inke marizand.
They can't come because they are ill.

cunke ‹conke› mariz چونکه مریض بودند غی توانستند بیایند. budand nemi tavānestand biāyand ‹nemi tunestand biānd›.
As they were ill they couldn't come.

In speech, it is as common in Persian as it is in English to omit the main clause when answering a question asking  $\cot cer\bar{a}$  'why':

### 11. Conditional clauses

See 8/4 above. A conditional clause states subject to what condition the main clause is true. The conditional clause almost always begins the sentence.

We need to distinguish between *real* conditions, which are possible ('if it rains') and *unreal* conditions, which are impossible or at least unlikely ('if I had known').

**Real conditions.** Real conditions in present or future time are mostly introduced by one of the conjunctions

agar is by far the commonest of these. The conditional clause has its verb in the subjunctive (5/16):

agar hārān hebārad manzel اگر باران ببارد منزل می مانیم. mi mānim. If it rains we'll stay at home.

agar vaqt dāšte bāšid اگر وقت داشته باشید\* بفرمایید. befarmāid. If you have time, please (come).

be šarti ke به شرطی که به حسابداری خبر دهید می توانید ... ... be hesābdāri xabar dehid ‹bedin›, mi tavānid ‹mi tunid› ... ... Provided you inform Accounts, you can

در صورتی که حساب پرداخته نشود ما مبلغ ۲٪ ماهیانه می کنیم. dar surati ke hesāb pardāxte našavad mā mablaqe do dar sad māhiāne ezāfe mi konim. In the event that the bill is not paid we add ('a sum of') 2% per month ('monthly').

\* for c  $d\bar{a}$   $d\bar$ 

In everyday Persian it is common also to use the past tense in the conditional clause of such sentences, when the condition is considered extremely likely:

agar ānhā rā didid اگر آنهارا دیدید این بلیطرا به آنها بدهید. in bilit rā be ānhā bedehid. If you see them give them this ticket. agar vaqt nadāštid eib nadārad اگر وقت نداشتید عیب ندارد.
معطقته agar vaqt nadāstid eib nadārad

In these two examples the 'if' almost means 'when'.

Real conditions in past time are rare. In these, the conditional clause has its verb in the perfect subjunctive; the verb of the main clause follows the logic of the sentence:

agar qarārdād اگر قرارداد نرسیده باشد حتمًا زنگ می زند.

naraside bāšad ‹bāše› hatman zang mi zanad ‹mi zane›

If the contract has not arrived he will certainly ring.

اگر به شهر رفته باشد یادداشتی\* نوشته است\*\*.

agar be šahr rafte bāšad yāddāšti nevešte ast.

If he has gone to town he will have written a note.

\* See 11/2 for the spelling of this word.

\*\* Perfect tense with future-perfect meaning, see 5/22.

In a sentence such as the following, where the condition is known to be fulfilled already:

agar motma'en hastid befarmāid. اگر مطمئن هستید بفرمایید. If/Since you're sure, go ahead.

the conditional verb can stand in the present tense (5/10). In such a sentence means more 'since' than 'if in English.

See also 8/9, Clauses of time, third indent. Clauses introduced by

(که) har vaqt (ke), (که) har mouqe' (ke)

can have a real conditional meaning, 'if ever ...' or 'if and when'.

The verb goes into the past:

هر وقت (که) او را دیدید خبر بدهید. har vaqt (ke) u rā didid xabar bedehid. If ever/If and when you see him, tell (me).

Unreal conditions. In both clauses of an unreal condition the verb stands in the imperfect tense (5/13; for داشتن dāštan 'to have' and budan 'to be' the past tense, 5/8; the imperfect of شدن šodan 'to become' may also be preferred to the latter). The introductory conjunction is اگر agar. The time-sequence of the sentence sometimes has to be inferred from the context:

agar ān rā mi dānestam اگر آن را می دانستم به شما می گفتم. be šomā mi goftam. If I knew that I would tell you.

or: If I had known that I would have told you.

اگر آن را باور می کردم خودم می رفتم. agar ān rā bāvar mi kardam xodam mi raftam. If I believed that I would go myself.

اگر خودمان نمی دیدیم باور نمی کردیم.

agar xodemān «xodemun» nemi didim bāvar nemi kardim.

If we hadn't seen (it) ourselves we wouldn't have believed (it).

اگر یك نفر غایب بود \می شد می باختیم.

agar yek nafar qāyeb bud/mi šod mi bāxtim. If one man had been absent we would have lost.

agar اگر رانندگان بیشتر توجه می کردند تصادمی نمی شد.

rānandegān bištar tavajjoh mi kardand tasādomi nemi šod. If the drivers had been more careful there would have been no collision.

In all conditions, the conjunction may often be dropped in everyday speech:

. منزل می مانیم، hārān hiād manzel mi munim، Should it rain, we'll stay at home.

يك نفر غايب مى شد ما مى باختيم. wek nafar qāyeb mi šod mā mi bāxtim. One man off and we'd have lost.

Negative conditions. 'Unless' is اگر agar with a negative verb, 'if ... not'; or مگر اینکه mágar inke with an affirmative verb and following the main clause:

agar ajale nakonid fāyede nādārad اگر عجله نکنید فایده ندارد.
«nadāre». Unless you ('If you do not') hurry it will be useless.

فایده ندارد مگر اینکه عجله کنید. fāyede nādārad ‹nadāre› magar inke ajale konid. It will be no good unless you hurry .

In English, 'if' can also be used to mean 'whether' in indirect questions (8/3 above):

nemi dānam āyā mi āyad أيا مى آيد.
I do not know whether/if she is coming.

In Persian اگر 'if' is found only in conditional sentences.

'If not' is عو اگرنه va agar ná (note the stress), which can be added to any conditional sentence where it makes sense:

agar hāzer bāšad اگر حاضر باشد بیاید و اگرنه به من بگویید. biāyad ‹bāše biād›, va agar na he man heguid ‹hegid›. If he is present, have him come (in); if not, tell me.

### 12. Clauses of concession

See 8/4 above. A clause of concession or concessive clause is the opposite of a condition (8/11); it states *despite* or *irrespective* of what circumstance the main clause is true. Clauses of concession are introduced by one of the following conjunctions, the first four meaning 'although', 'even though', 'even if':

با اینکه bā inke با وجود اینکه hā vojude inke با اینکه ágarham اگرچه ágarce (NB stress) and هرچه har ce however (much)

The concessive clause usually begins the sentence, and its verb

stands in the tense demanded by the time-sequence:

با اینکه فقیر است شکایت غی کند. bā inke faqir ast šekāyat
nemi konad. Although he is poor he does not complain.

اگر رئيس هم عددهارا قبول كرده است من مىخواهم دوباره agar rais ham adadhā rā qabul karde ast man mi xāham dobāre negāh konam. Even though the boss has accepted the figures, I want to look again.

هرچه کوشش می کنید نمی شود.

har ce kušeš mi konid nemi šavad <nemi še>. However (much) you try it won't work ('won't become').

أكرچه ágarce is commoner in writing than in speech. When it is used, the main clause is usually introduced by أما ámmā or ولى váli, both meaning 'but', yet probably best translated here (if translated at all) as 'nevertheless':

اگرچه وزیر برگشته است ولی تصمیمی اعلام نشده است.

agarce vazir bar gašte ast vali tasmimi e'lām našode ast.

Although the minister has returned, ('nevertheless')

no decision has been announced.



jolfā - kalisāye vānk Julfa - جلفا، کلیسای وانک The Armenian ('Vank') Cathedral

### 13. Clauses of manner

See 8/4 above. Clauses of manner show how or in what manner the main verb takes place. The commonest introductory conjunction for such a clause is

mesle inke as if, as though مثل ایتکه صحبت می کرد مثل اینکه مرا خوب می شناخت.

sohbat mi kard mesle inke marā xub mi šenāxt.
He/She spoke as if he/she knew me well.

piāde mi re mesle inke پیاده می رود مثل اینکه مست است.

mast e.> He walks as if he is/were drunk.

## 14. Topic and comment

Examine the sentences

پسر همسایهٔ جدید من پزشك است.

pesare hamsāyeye jadide man pezešk ast.

My new neighbour's son is a doctor.

همسایهٔ جدید من و پسرش را دیده اید؟

hamsāyeye jadide man o pesareš rā dide id? Have you seen my new neighbour and his son?

These are technically correct as they stand; but they are more natural as

همسایهٔ جدید من ، پسرش پزشك است.

hamsāyeye jadide man, pesareš pezešk ast. 'My new neighbour, his son is a doctor.'

همسایهٔ جدید من و پسر او، آنها را دیده اید؟

hamsāyeye jadide man o pesare u, ānhā rā dide id? 'My new neighbour and his son, have you seen them?'

When the subject or object of the sentence is a complex expression, it is common, even in written Persian, to break the sentence and restate the subject or object with a pronoun (4/2, 3) or a possessive adjective (3/11), as shown above. This structure can be called 'topic and comment'. The written comma between the first part (the topic) and the second (the comment) may sometimes be absent from the Persian text, but there is always a short pause in

pronunciation.

We have topic and comment in English, but only in everyday speech:

Last night's cello soloist, wasn't he a bit flamboyant?

Topic and comment is especially useful in the quasi-impersonal structures described in 8/15 below.

#### 15. Quasi-impersonal structures

Certain expressions of mood can be made with quasi-impersonal expressions in Persian.

Liking and disliking. In addition to the compound verb dust dāštan dār- 'to like' which is used with a دوست داشتن دار... personal subject:

we have the quasi-impersonal or reversed structures

The structures are best understood by studying examples:

az didane a'zāye komite hamiše badeš mi āmad. He always disliked seeing (the) members of the committee.

Note:

- The thing liked or disliked is put after the preposition  $\int az$ 'from'. It can be a pronoun, a noun or any expression equivalent to a noun (such as a long infinitive with its object, see 5/2).
- The structure is not completely impersonal, since it has an

identified subject, which is either خوش xos or بد bad, with the appropriate tense of ... آمدن آ $\bar{a}$  amadan  $\bar{a}$ - in the 3rd person singular.

• The person who likes or dislikes is expressed as a possessive suffix attached to خوش xoš or بد bad.

The examples given above express the person as a pronoun. When we wish to express the person as a noun, we use 'topic and comment' (8/14 above) to restate it, i.e. putting the noun or noun expression first and reflecting it in the possessive suffix attached to غوش or بد الم

a'zāye komite az didane u xošešān naxāhad āmad.

The committee members won't like seeing him.'
('The committee members, they won't like seeing him.')

**Feeling sleepy; falling asleep.** These are also best expressed quasi-impersonally:

. (است) خوابش آمده (است) خيقheš umade (ast)، He/She feels sleepy. خوابش برد. بقادة غوابش برد.

These have a pronoun as the affected party. To re-express with a noun, we use 'topic and comment' as shown above:

بچه ها خوابشان آمده است. baccehā, xābešān āmade ast. The children are feeling sleepy. ('The children, their sleep has come.')

bacce, xābeš borde ast.

The baby's fallen asleep.

See 1/13 for the pronunciation of خوش xoš and جواب xāb.

### 16. Wishes and exclamations

Wishes are most commonly introduced with کاش که  $k\bar{a}$  ke 'Would that'. The verb goes into the subjunctive (5/16) if the wish is still realisable, and into the imperfect or pluperfect tense (5/13, 25) if the wish can no longer be realised:

kāš ke biāid! I wish you would come!

## 8 - Syntax

لَّهُ مَى آمدى أَمَدُهُ بودى! kāš ke mi āmadi/āmade budi! ا wish you had come!

'How ...' and 'What ...' in exclamations are expressed with  $\Leftarrow$  *ce* before an indefinite noun (3/2, 8), an adjective (3/6) or an adverb (7/1):

ce xāneye hozorgi. What a big house. إلى الست! و ce qašang (‹e›)! How beautiful (it is)! ولا مى كنند. و ce xub bāzi mi konand.

How well they play.

## 9. Numbers

### 1. Numerals

The numerals are:

You will note that numerals 4, 5 and 6 have alternative forms.

### 2. Cardinal Numbers

Cardinal numbers ('one', 'two') express quantity and are used in counting. They are shown below (with colloquial pronunciation in angular quotation marks  $\langle \cdot \rangle$ ). The numerals in compound numbers are written from left to right  $\rightarrow$ :

•	0	صفر	sefr				
1	1	يك	yek	۲	2	دو	do
٣	3	سه	se	۴	4	چهار	cahār ‹cār›
۵	5	پنج	panj	۶	6	شش	šeš
V	7	هفت	haft	٨	8	هشت	hašt
٩	9	نه	noh	١.	10	ده	dah
11	11	يازده	yāzdah	١٢	12	دوازده	davāzdah
14	13	سيزده	sizdah	14	14	چهارده	cahārdah
10	15	پانزده	pānzdah	19	16	شانزده	šānzdah
			<punzdah></punzdah>				<šunzdah>
17	17	هوده	hevdah/hivdah				
							dah/hiždah>
11	19	نوزده	nuzdah	۲.	20	بيست	bist
41	21	ت و يك	bist o yek	77	22	ت و دو	** *
							bist o do
۳.	30	سی	si	۴.	40	چہل	cehel
۵.	50	پنجاه	panjāh	7.	60	شصت	šast
٧.	70	هفتاد	haftād	٨٠	80	هشتاد	haštād
٩.	90	نود	navad	١	100	صد	sad

### 9 - Numbers

1.0	105	sad o panj صد و پنج
۱۳.	130	sad o si صد و سی
194	164	sad o šast o cahār صد و شصت و چهار
۲	200	devist دویست
709	259	devist o panjāh o noh دویست و پنجاه و نه
۳	300	. sisad سیصد
4	400	cahār sad چهارصد
۵.,	500	pānsad «punsad»
9	600	šešsad/šeš sad ششصد \شش صد
٧	700	haftsad/haft sad هفتصد
۸٠٠	800	haštsad/hašt sad هشتصد \هشت صد
٩	900	nohsad/noh sad نهصد\نه صد
١	1000	hezār هزار
۲	2000	do hezār دو هزار
٣٠٠.	3000	se hezār سه هزار
۴	4000	cahār hezār چهار هزار
۵	5000	panjhezār/panj hezār پنجهزار \پنج هزار
9	6000	šešhezār/šeš hezār ششهزار \شش هزار
<b>v</b> · · ·	7000	hafthezār/haft hezār هفتهزار\هفت هزار
۸۰۰۰	8000	hašthezār/hašt hezār هشتهزار اهشت هزار
٩	9000	noh hezār نه هزار
	١	melyun مليون 1,000,000
	۲	

### Note:

- After a number, the counted noun is always in the singular: ماعت davāzdah sā'at twelve hours
- The form یك yek 'one' is used in counting, or with a counted noun. Used otherwise, it mostly takes the form يكى yeki:

  yek šaxs hast. There is one person.

  but: بكى هست. yeki hast. There is one.
- With a counted noun denoting people, it is common to add نفر nafar 'person(s)' after the number; with a counted noun

### 9 - Numbers

denoting objects, it is common to add **t** tā 'pieces' after the number:

- Although the counted noun is singular in form, an expression indicating two or more has a plural verb:
  - se nafar mohandes سه نفر مهندس گزارش دادند. gozāreš dādand. Three engineers reported.
- Compound numbers run from greatest to smallest, all elements being connected with pronounced o 'and':

هزار و دویست و سی و پنج hezār o devist o si o panj one thousand two hundred and thirty-five

- The highest number used with عند sad 'hundred' is عند noh 'nine'; we must therefore express a number like 'twelve hundred' as هزار و دویست hezār o devist 'one thousand two hundred'.
- مليون sad 'hundred', مليون hezār 'thousand' and مليون melyun 'million' are preceded by يك yek 'one' only when 'one' is emphasised:

i فقط یك ملیون faqat yek melyun only one million These words are also nouns, and can be made plural:

. چند نفر آمدند؟ – هزرها cand nafar āmadand?
- hezarhā. How many people came? - Thousands.

The  $ez\bar{a}fe$  (3/5) is not used in plural expressions such as:

sadhā nafar raftand. Hundreds ('of people') went.

• The numbers are indefinite in meaning as they stand. They can be made definite by adding an adjective with definite meaning, e.g. a demonstrative such as المن in 'that' (3/12) or a definite distributive such as هر har 'every' (3/14):

se tā ketāb xaridam. I bought three books. ān se tā gerānand.

Those three are expensive.

ا خریدید؟ hamin se tā ketāb rā همین سه تا کتاب را خریدید؟ xaridid? Did you buy the same three books?

اهر سه افسر تقصیر دارند. har se afsar taqsir dārand.
All three officers are to blame ('have blame').

har do dānešju emtehān هر دو دانشجو امتحان دادند. dādand. Both students took an examination.

And note هر دوشان har doešān 'both of them', with the possessive suffix (3/11).

### 3. Ordinal numbers

Ordinal numbers ('first', 'second') show a place in a sequence. The first three ordinal numbers are irregular:

avvál first دوم dovvóm second اول sevvóm third All others are regularly formed by adding the stressed suffix .... -óm to the cardinal number. '-first' in compound numbers is yekom. The ordinal number in these forms is a definite adjective which follows its noun (if there is one) after an ezāfe (3/8):

pānzdahom ‹punzdahom› (the) fifteenth روز اول ruze avval the first day قرن بیست و یکم

Persian often uses the ordinal number where English prefers the cardinal:

درس ششم را خواندیم. darse šešom rā xāndim.

We read Lesson 6 ('the sixth lesson').

Another form of the ordinal number is made by attaching '...-ín (stressed) to the form shown above. This form is used like a superlative adjective (3/10), i.e preceding the noun, with no  $ez\bar{a}fe$ ; or like a pronoun, i.e. with no noun:

avvalin dānešju the first student اولين دانشجو cahārdahomin hafteye sāl the fourteenth week of the year in dahomin ast ‹e›. This is the tenth (one).

## 4. Other numerical expressions

Other expressions of number or numerical order deserve attention:

Once, twice (etc.) are expressed with words such as مرتبه martabe, بار bār or دفعه daf'e, all meaning 'a time':
 yek martabe/bār/daf'e once
 yek martabe/bār/daf'e a hundred times
 and martabe three times daily
 and note: چند مرتبه بار دفعه cand martabe/bār/daf'e
 a few times

? cand martabe/bār/daf'e چند مرتبه\بار\دفعه how many times?

- 'Or' is not expressed in approximations like the following:
   dah pānzdah ‹punzdah› ten or fifteen
- Distributive and repetitive numbers:

یکی یکی yeki yeki singly, one by one but: دو تا دو تا نادو تا دو تا دو تا دو تا دو تا do tā do tā (NB stress) two by two dah tā dah tā ten at a time

se ruz be se ruz every three days سه روز به سه روز

- '-odd': سي و اند si o and thirty-odd
- چندم candóm and چندمین candomín, used in questions, preceding the noun; چندم candom is followed by ezāfe (3/8), چندمین candomin is not, but its noun has indefinite ....-i (3/2):
  - امروز چندم ماه است؟ emruz candome māh ast <e>?
    What day ('the how-manyeth') of the month is it today?
  - !... این چندمین مرتبه ای است که گفتم ...! in candomin martabei st ke goftam ...? How many times have I said ...? ('This is the how-manyeth time that I have said ...?')

and چندمين are not directly translatable into English.
They are the exact equivalent of German 'der/die/das wievielte'.

## 5. Fractions and percentage

Fractions. 'half' is نيم nim, used directly before the noun:

nim sā'at half an hour نيم ساعت

'and a half' is و نيم o nim, after the counted noun:

do sāl o nim two and a half years دو سال و نیم

Ordinal numbers (9/3 above) from سوم sevvom 'third' upwards are also used as fractions:

دو سوم وزن  $\frac{7}{4}$  do sevvome vazn  $^2/_3$  of the weight yek panjom one fifth noh dahomes nine tenths of it

We also commonly use the Arabic fractions for 'half' to 'fifth':

sols third ثلث sols third نصف rob'/rob quarter ربع خسس xoms fifth دو ثلث do sols two thirds

se rob'/rob three quarters سه ربع

Percentage. There are two ways of expressing percentage:

## 6. Other adjectival forms, and adverbial forms

**Adjectival forms.** Adjectives are formed from some numerical expressions by adding  $-\ell$  (stressed) + silent final  $\delta$  (1/15):

برنامهٔ پنجساله barnāmeye panjsālé the five-year programme مذاکره ای چهارروزه mozākerei cahārruze a four-day conference مشين دونفره māšine donafare a/the two-seater car ravābete dotarafe bilateral relations bacceye hašt sālei an eight-year-old child If the counted noun already ends in silent, this becomes ... -gí

(also stressed on the -i):

mo'ālejei se haftegí a three-week treatment

**Adverbial forms.** For the adverbial forms 'first(ly)', 'second(ly)' etc., used to enumerate items, Persian uses the Arabic adverbs. We need to know only the first five. Note the final stress:

avvalán first(ly) اولاً sānián second(ly) انبًا sālesán third(ly) ابعًا rābe'án fourth(ly)

xāmesán fifth(ly) خامساً

do tā adad دو تا عدد لازم داريم، اولاً قيمت و ثانيًا خرج بيمه. اقتصد datā adad lāzem dārim, avvalan qeimat va sānian xarje bime. We need two figures; first, the price, and second, the cost of insurance.

## abjad ابجد . 7

In English we frequently use alphabetical letters or Roman numerals to number parts of a document. In Persian, this is done with alphabetical letters. Every letter of the alphabet has a numerical value for this purpose; we need to know only the values of the first ten, which are:

> ابجد هوز حطی 1098 765 4321

for which a simple memory aid is used: abjad havvaz hoti.

ا. مقدمه .l alef. moqaddame (a)/(i) Introduction

be. omumiyāt (b)/(ii) General ب. عمومیات

('Generalities')

jim. vaz'iyate māli (c)/(iii) Financial Situation

### 8. Measurement

We do not use the  $ez\bar{a}fe$  (3/5) with units of measurement:

do kilou o nim šakar two and a half kilos of sugar

se fenjān ﴿fenjun› cāi three cups of tea سه فنجان چای dah litr āb ten litres of water

## do joft jurāb two pairs of socks دو جفت جوراب

Dimensions and weights are expressed so:

andāzeye in miz ceqadr ast <e>? What does this table measure ('How much is the measurement of ...')?

اندازهاش دو متر در یك متر و هشتاد است.

andāzeaš do metr dar yek metr o haštād ast <e>.
It measures two metres by one metre eighty.

qet'ei be mesāhate dah hektār a plot measuring ten hectares ('to the area of ...')

vazne in baste ceqadr ast <e>?

How heavy is ('What is the weight of') this parcel?

vazneš cahār kilou o devist وزنش چهار کیلو و دویست گرم. gram. It weighs four kilos and two hundred grams.

برادرم هشتاد كيلو وزن دارد.

barādaram haštād kilou vazn dārad ‹dāre›. My brother weighs eighty kilos ('has eighty kilos weight').

### 9. Calculation

Calculations are most commonly expressed with مى شود mi šavad (colloquially, «mi še») 'becomes', in the middle of the expression:

šeš o cahār mi šavad dah. Six plus four makes ten.

panj az noh mi šavad cahār. Five from nine leaves four.

hašt cahār tā mi šavad si o do. Eight times four is thirty-two.

مفت تقسیم بر دو می شود سه و نیم. haft taqsim bar do mi šavad se o nim. Seven divided by two is three and a half.

### 10. Clock

Important vocabulary for telling the time:

تقد sā'at hour, clock, watch دقیقه daqiqe minute

sānie (a) second inm half

po ('and') past

phe to sobh morning inm half

sobh morning in zohr noon, midday

sobh morning in asr evening

pha'd az zohr afternoon in sab night in esfe šab midnight

sā'at cand ast <e>? What time is it?

Examples:

sā'ate yek/do ast. It is one/two o'clock.

(ساعت) سه و نیم (sā'ate) se o nim half past three (sā'ate) cahār o rob'/rob a quarter past four

(sā'ate) cahār o pānzdah daqiqe (ساعت) چهار و پانزده دقیقه fifteen minutes past four

(sā'ate) panj o dah daqiqe ten past five

(ساعت) شش و دوازده دقیقه (sā'ate) šeš o davāzdah daqiqe twelve minutes past six

yek rob'/rob be haft یك ربع به هفت (sā'ate) haft yek rob'/rob kam a quarter to seven

بیست دقیقه به هشت bist daqiqe be hašt (ماعت (sāʾate) hašt bist daqiqe kam twenty to eight

You will note from these examples:

- For time on the hour, the word was must be used.
   Everywhere else it can be dropped.
- The word دقیقه is always present other than on the full hour, the half and the quarters.
- For time from the hour to half-past there is only one common formula. For time from the half-hour to the next hour, there are two formulæ.

### 11. Calendar

Three calendars are used in Iran.

The official Iranian calendar. This calendar, called سال هجرى sāle hejriye xoršidi 'the solar hejri year', is used for all official and national purposes:

month		days	western date of first day	
فروردين	1	farvardin	31	(Spring equinox) 21 or 22 March
		ordibehešt	31	
خرداد	٣	xordād	31	
تير	۴	tir	31	(Summer solstice) 21 or 22 June
مرداد	۵	mordād	31	
شهريور	ç	šahrivar	31	
مهر	٧	mehr	30	(Autumn equinox) 21 or 22 Sept.
آبان	٨	ābān	30	
آذر	٩	āzar	30	
دى	١.	dei	30	(Winter solstice) 21 or 22 Dec.
بهمن	11	bahman	30	
اسفند	11	esfand	29; 3	30 in a leap year

Each of these names may be followed by منه...-māh 'month'; this is commoner with the shorter names, e.g. تيرماه tirmāh.

The international or western calendar. This calendar year is known as سال میلادی sāle milādi 'the Christian year', and is used for international relations and trade. The months are pronounced in imitation of the French from which they are taken:

ژانویه	žānvié January	فوريه	fevrié February
مارس	mārs March	آوريل	āvríl April
مه	me May	ژوئن	<i>žuán</i> June
ژوئیه	<i>žuié</i> July	اوت	ut August
سپتامبر	septámber September	اكتبر	október October
نوامبر	novåmber November	دسامبر	desāmber December

1 January 2000 AD corresponded to 11 Dei 1378 AH Iranian.

(AH is Anno Hegiræ, the Year of the Flight.)

The Moslem calendar. This has a lunar year, سال هجرى قمرى sāle hejriye qamari 'the lunar hejri year'. It has twelve months and lasts 354 or 355 days; the year count dates from the Prophet Mohammad's flight from Mecca to Medina in 622 AD. It is used to mark Moslem religious events:

۱ محرم	mohárram	30 days
۲ صفر ٔ	sáfar	30
	rabí'ol'avvál	30
<u> </u>	rabí'ossā́ni	30
	jomādal'úla	30
<ul> <li>جمادی الاخری</li> </ul>	jomādal'óxra	30
٧ رجب	rájab	29
۸ شعبان	ša'bā́n	29
۹ رمضان	ramazán	29
۱۰ شوال	šavvā́l	29
١١ ذوالقعده	zolqá'de	29
۱۲ ذو الحجه	zolhéjje	29 or 30

Newspapers usually carry all three dates.

The days of the week are:

غمه jom'e Friday شنبه šambe Saturday بکشنبه yekšambe Sunday دوشنبه došambe Monday بکشنبه sešambe Tuesday پکارشنبه sešambe Tuesday پنجشنبه panjšambe Thursday

These names are often preceded by روز 'day' with the ezāfe (3/5): روز شنبه ruze šambe.

Traditionally, the day starts at sunset. Care is therefore needed with expressions such as:

قب (روز) جمعه šabe (ruze) jom'e Thursday night šabe šambe Friday night but: (روز) جمعه شب (ruze) jom'e šab Friday night

Dates. We express dates with the ordinal numbers, as in English: المال المال

اروز) جمعه سی و یکم دسامبر سال هزار و (روز) جمعه سی و یکم دسامبر سال هزار و (ruze) jom'e si o yekome desāmbere sāle hezār o noh sad o navad o nohe milādi
Friday 31st December ('of') 1999 AD

## 12. Age

A person's age (سن sen) is expressed as follows:

senneš ceqadr ast ‹e›? سنش چقدر است؟ دارد؟ cand sāl dārad ‹dāre›? چند سال دارد؟ senneš bist sāl ast ‹e›. bist sāl dārad ‹dāre›.

} How old is
he/she?
He/She is
20 years old.



esfahān - kāxe cehel sotun اصفهان، کاخ کیال ستون اsfahan - Palace of Chehel Sotun ('Forty Pillars')

## 10. Arabic Forms

### 1. General

The whole grammar and most basic vocabulary of Persian are Indo-European. But much abstract vocabulary has been taken from Arabic and is commonly used, having survived various language reforms in Iran. This Arabic vocabulary mostly keeps its Arabic spelling, but is pronounced in a Persian manner; often also the meaning is different. This book shows the Persian pronunciation and meaning; and the Persian spelling where it is different.

It used to be common to learn substantial parts of Arabic grammar as part of Persian language studies. This is not necessary; it suffices to learn a few Arabic forms for recognition. It is no more important to know Arabic thoroughly for studying Persian than it is, for example, to know French for studying English.

Arabic plurals of nouns are examined in 3/4.

## 2. Participles

Chapter 5/20 gives a definition of a participle and shows how Persian present and past participles are formed and used.

Arabic also has participles formed from its own verbs. Persian uses these participles as nouns (mostly denoting a person) or as adjectives.

Common patterns:

-ā-e-:

tājer merchant تاجر bā'es/bāes cause باعث hākem governor -a-ā-, -a-ā: معار najjār carpenter تامل šāmel including بنایب nāyeb deputy, lieutenant عابق sābeq former, preceding

naqqāš painter نقاش bannā builder

### **ma-u-**:

mašrub drink مشروب مغنون mamnun grateful مخصوص maxsus special معروف ma'ruf well-known

manšur decree, diploma منشور mamnu' forbidden عنوع maqsud purpose مقصود mahsub billed amas'ul responsible

### то-е-:

mo'allem teacher (معلم معلم mo'arrefi presentation) معلم mofasser commentator مسافر mosāfer traveller مسافر monāseb suitable ماسب movāzeb careful مشكل momken possible مشكل moškel difficult moskel difficult مضحك mozhek funny mohem important atom mo'men believer متسكل motamadden civilised \*متمدن motamadden civilised متمدن motawajjeh attentive متحص motaxasses expert متاسف متحص motawajjeh attentive مختلف moxtalef various مختلف mohtamel probable منتظر moftaxer proud منتظر montazer awaiting

\* See 1/15. This final  $\bullet$  is part of the root, and is pronounced h. **mo-a-**, **mo-\bar{a}-**:

mosammam decided محترم mosammam respected محترم moqaddas sacred مشرف mošarraf honoured مرتب morattab arranged, regular منظم monazzam orderly موفق mojaddadan afresh) موفق movaffaq successful مطلق motlaq absolute مثبت mosbat positive معتمد mo'tamad trusted معتمد moratasar abbreviated محتاج mohtāj needy mo-i-, mo-i:

modir director مدیر monši clerk

مفید mofid useful مبتدی mobtadi beginner

### Note:

 Many of these participles can be given appropriate Persian prefixes or suffixes, or incorporated into Persian compounds, or extended with Arabic endings used in Persian:

mas'uliyat responsibility مسئوليت معلمان\معلمان\معلمها

mo'allemin/mo'allemān/mo'allemhā teachers mofidtar more useful مفيدتر naqqāší (profession/activity of) painting

mahsub kardan to place on account mo'arrefí kardan to introduce, present معرفي كردن and some of them (shown in parentheses above) are used only with an ending (Arabic or Persian) added:

mo'arrefi presentation معرفي mojaddadan afresh

Since the participles are used as nouns or adjectives, they often occur as complement (see 5/6) of verbs such as šodan šav- 'to be' or شدن شو... šodan šav- 'to become':

xeili mota'assefam. I am very sorry. movāzeb bāšid. Be careful.

nāgahān masale mohemtar šod. ناگهان مسئله مهمتر شد. Suddenly the problem became more important.

### 3. Verbal nouns

An Arabic verbal noun usually denotes the activity or result of the verb from which it is derived. Common patterns found in such words used in Persian:

ta-i-, tou-i-:

tasmim decision تصميم ta'til holiday تعطیل تغییر taqyir change ta'sis founding تأسيس

taškil formation ta'mir repair تعمير tašrif honouring تشریف taslim submission تسليم tartib arrangement tajdid renewal تجدید

### 10 - Arabic Forms

tahvil transfer تحويل tadbir plan تدبير tadrij gradation تدريج tadris tuition تدريس ta'lim teaching taqsim dividing تقسيم tamrin exercise تمرين taqsir fault, defect تقصير tambih punishment تنبیه (tagriban approximately تقریباً ta'lif (artistic) composition toulid production توليد tougif arrest توقیف ta-e-e, ta-iye, ta-iyat: tajrebe experience تحج به tasfiye refining تصفیه tarbiyat education تربيت ta-o-: ta(')assof regret تأسف tasādof coincidence tasavvor imagination tamaddon civilisation عدن tavajjoh attention ta'ajjob surprise تعجب mo-ā-e-e, mo-ā-e-at: mo'āmele transaction محافظه mo'āmele transaction معامله moxābere message مشاهده moxābere observation mo'āleje (medical) مذاكره treatment mosā'ede advance (money) morāje'at return مراجعت mosāferat journey مسافرت e-ā-. e-ā. e-ā-e. e-ā-at: ehterām respect احترام ebtedā beginning أبتدا ettehād union اتحاد ettefag event اتفاق extiār choice اختيار ejbār compulsion اجبار ehtemām care اهتمام engelāb revolution انقلاب enherāf diversion انحراف entexāb (s)election entegād criticism emkān possibility امكان eltefāt kindness التفات eqdām measure, action اقدام eqtesād economy eftexār honour, pride افتخار e'temād confidence eslāh reform

eslām Islam اسلام

eštebāh mistake اشتاه

estesnā exception ersāl despatch(ing) ارسال ezāfe addition erāde will, wish ارادت erādat sincerity legāmat stay eyārat sign, signal

ezdevāj marriage ازدواج ejāze permission edāme continuation estefāde utilisation, profit استفاده

### Note:

Many of these verbal nouns can be given appropriate Persian prefixes or suffixes, or incorporated into Persian compounds, or extended with Arabic endings used in Persian:

> edāri administrative enqelābi revolutionary انقلابي tasmimeš his/her decision تصميمة tasādofan coincidentally ettefāqan by chance اتفاقًا erādatmand sincere tasfiyexāne refinery

and some of them (one is shown in parentheses above) are more commonly used with an ending (Arabic or Persian) added:

# tagriban approximately تقريبًا

The verbal nouns make a multitude of compound verbs (see 5/29). Many of these are formed with ...خ دن كند. kardan شدن شو ... kon-, often having passive forms (5/30) with šodan šav-:

ta'mir kardan/šodan to repair/be repaired انتخاب کردن\شدن entexāb kardan/šodan to choose/be chosen ta'ajjob kardan to be astonished ejāze dādan to permit

#### 10 - Arabic Forms

- For the endings -e and -at, see 10/4 below.
- Some Arabic verbal nouns used in Persian have no regular pattern; they are also used in the manners described above:

amali عملي amal عمل practical, operative practice, operation qarārdād قرارداد contract garār قرار settlement, rest higarār restless بيقرار

... قرار گرفتن گیر agrār gereftan gir- to become settled

## 4. Word-ending 5... -a/-at

Many Arabic nouns (including some verbal nouns, see 10/3 above) have the ending ... in their original language. This mixed letter consists of he with the dots of te, and is pronounced in Arabic sometimes as  $-a_t$ , sometimes as -at.

When such nouns are used in Persian, the ending becomes in some examples  $\bullet ... -e$  (with silent  $\bullet$ , 1/15), and in others  $\bullet ... -at$ :

madrase school ملاحظه ezāfe addition نتيجه natije result mellat nation gā'ede rule mosāferat journey حقيقت haqiqat truth

A few pairs exist, each word usually having its own meaning:

erāde will, wish ارادت erādat sincerity

A few of these words make adverbs (see 7/2), all with the ending تًا... -atan (1/23), irrespective of the spelling of the noun:

haqiqatan in truth حقيقتًا gā'edatan as a rule قاعدتًا but see 7/2 also for the more common Persian adverbial phrases made from such words.

In a few clerical titles, the original Arabic spelling is found as well as Persian spelling with ::

مجت الاسلام حجة الاسلام مجة الاسلام مجة الاسلام hajatoleslām Hajatulislam قيت الله آية الله āyatollāh Ayatollah

## geire غير qabele and قابل . 5

The Arabic word قابل qābel 'able' is used together with some Arabic verbal nouns (10/3 above) to form compound adjectives corresponding to English adjectives ending in '-able', -'ible', 'worthy' and the like. The two words are connected with ezāfe (see 3/5, also Appendix II):

tavajjoh attention توجه

gābele tavajjoh قابل توجه notable, noteworthy, interesting

gabul acceptance قبول

qābele qabul قابل قبول acceptable

antele estefade | estefade | estefade | estefade | qāhele estefade | utilisable

tajdid renewal منابع قابل تجديد manābe'e qābele tajdid renewable resources

The Arabic word غير geir 'other' is used to negate some adjectives (including compound adjectives) taken from Arabic. It is followed by *ezāfe*:

qeire rasmi unofficial غير رسمى rasmi official رسمى qeire qābele qabul unacceptable

### 6. Definite article

Unlike Persian, Arabic has a definite article ... | al-. As used in Arabic, it mostly translates into English as 'the'; but in the Arabic phrases or compound words used in Persian this meaning is largely lost. The Arabic article is a prefix, attached to the word which it makes definite. The only things we need to know about it are how to spell it and pronounce it.

Its spelling never changes; it is always written ... lalef-lām-, and is always joined to the next word.

The general rule for its pronunciation is that it is never stressed, and does not affect the stress of the word to which it is attached. Further details concerning its pronunciation are given below.

**Pronunciation of the** 1 *alef.* The *alef* of the article is normally pronounced a-, but sometimes the vowel may become o- or e-:

الآن alán ‹alón› now

fouqal'áde/fouqol'áde exceptional(ly)

belaxeré (not [hā-]) finally

felfóur immediately

Most such expressions have two or more words in Arabic, but all are best learned and transcribed as single words for our purposes.

**Pronunciation of the** J*lām*. The lām of the article is pronounced as l before most letters, as in the examples given above. But before any letter representing one of the sounds t, d, r, s, š, z or  $n^*$  the l of the article is not pronounced; instead that first following letter is doubled in pronunciation:

\* The sounds are easily remembered. They are those produced with the tip or near-tip of the tongue, as is litself.

Finally note the spelling of the Arabic word ### allāh 'God' (which incorporates a definite article), found in names and set expressions:

azizolláh Azizollah (name)

masjede šeix lotfolláh

the Sheikh Lotfollah mosque (in Isfahan)

alhamdolelláh praise be to God

الله الله enšā'alláh/enšālláh perhaps

besmelláh in the name of God

### 1. General

Much Persian vocabulary consists of base words which are expanded, with a consequent change of meaning and/or grammatical function, by adding prefixes, suffixes or middle parts, or by adding other words to form compounds; or by a combination of these devices. A base word itself may already be a derivative or a compound. Not all compound words are written as one word.

## 2. Derived and compound nouns

کار	<i>kār</i> work	همكار	hamkār colleague
شهر	<i>šahr</i> town	همشهري	hamšahri fellow-townsman
سايه	sāye shade	همسايه	hamsāye neighbour
بازي	<i>bāzi</i> game	همبازي	hambāzi playmate
درد	dard pain	همدرد	hamdard fellow-sufferer
راه	rāh road	همراه	hamrāh travelling companion

**Suffixes.** The following suffixes are added to make nouns:

• i. This suffix, which always takes the stress of the word, is added to adjectives and to nouns denoting persons, to make abstract nouns or nouns of activity. This is the most productive noun suffix:

زود	zud fast, soon	زودی	zudí promptness
تند	tond fast, brusque	تندی	tondí speed, brusqueness
بزرگ	bozorg big	بزرگی	bozorgi size, greatness
راست	rāst straight, right	راستی	<i>rāsti</i> straightness, rightness
سفيد	sefid white	سفيدي	sefidi whiteness
سخت	saxt hard	سختى	saxti hardship

sangin heavy سنگ sangini weight, gravity سنت hamāhang هماهنگ 📤 hamāhangi harmonious harmony mardi manliness مردي mard man مرد dust friend دوست dusti friendship دوستي hamkār colleague همكاري hamkāri cooperation *āšpaz* cook الث āšpazi cookery *naggāš* painter نقاش naggāši نقاشي (act of) painting

Sometimes the base word is itself a compound (see under 'Compounds' later in this paragraph), whose elements may be written separately. An abstract noun derived from such a word is then also written as separate elements, the suffix being added at the end of the whole word as usual:

haq šenāsi grateful gratitude

haq nāšenās gratitude

haq nāšenās aungrateful ingratitude

zamin šenās geologist geology

After a base word ending in 1...a or 0...u, the suffix is spelt 0...a; we also encounter the older spelling 0...a:

دانایی dānā wise دانایی dānāi wisdom rāstgu truthful راستگویی rāstgui truthfulness A silent final ه (see 1/15) becomes گ before the ن... -i is added. This group includes participles, see 5/20:

gorosne hungry گرسنگی gorosnegi hunger گرسنگ baste tied, closed بستگی baste tied, closed بستگی hastegi connexion خستگی خستگی bacce child بچگی baccegi childhood بچگی namāyandegi representative representation

This suffix can also indicate a place of activity:

ketābforuši كتابفروشي من ketābforuši كتابفروش bookseller bookshop غابفروشي خahrbāni police chief police headquarters

It also occurs in a few compounds with the present stem of a verb (5/10), where there is no base word:

nāmnevisi registration نامنویسی vazn kaši weighing

The various uses of the suffix c...-i are summarised in Appendix III.

• ش... -éš (بیش... -yéš after a vowel). This suffix is added to some present stems of verbs to make a noun of activity. It takes the stress of the word:

کوشیدن کوش 	kušidan kuš- to strive	<b>ک</b> وشش ۔	kušeš effort
آموخت <i>ن</i> آموز	āmuxtan āmuz- to learn	آموزش	<i>āmuzeš</i> learning
دانست <i>ن</i> دانـ	dānestan dān- to know	دانش	<i>dāneš</i> knowledge
ورزیدن ورز	varzidan varz- to exercise	ورزش	<i>varzeš</i> sport
سو <b>خان</b> سوز	suxtan suz- to burn	سوزش	<i>suzeš</i> burning
آزمودن آزما	āzmudan āzmā- to experiment	آزمایش	<i>āzmāyeš</i> experiment
غودن غا	namudan namā- to show	غايش	<i>namāyeš</i> show
پالودن پالا	<i>pāludan pālā-</i> to refine	ُیش\ <b>پالش</b> pālāyeš/pā	על ileš refining
فرمودن فرما	farmudan farmā- to command	فرمايش	farmāyeš command

• A few nouns of activity are formed with the suffix  $-\hat{a}r$ , added to the short infinitive (5/2) of a verb. The suffix takes the stress of the word:

رفت raft to go رفتار raftār behaviour وقتار goft to say گفتار goftār talk دیدار didār view, meeting

A few nouns of quality are made with the suffix 1... -å,
 which is stressed:

garm warm گرما  $garm\bar{a}$  warmth  $garm\bar{a}$  width  $garm\bar{a}$  width  $garm\bar{a}$  cold  $garm\bar{a}$  width  $garm\bar{a}$  cold  $garm\bar{a}$  cold  $garm\bar{a}$  width

- Two suffixes indicating place. Both take the stress:
  - ستان...-estấn (-stấn after a vowel) indicates a big place, and is often used for countries or regions. Any final د...-i on the base word is dropped before suffixing; some words undergo other vowel changes:

شهر	<i>šahr</i> city	شهرستان	<i>šahrestān</i> county
انگلیسی	englisi English, Briti	انگلستان sh	<i>englestān</i> England, Britain
عرب	<i>arab</i> Arab	عربستان	<i>arabestān</i> Arabia
هندی	<i>hendi</i> Indian	هندوستان	<i>hendustān</i> India
مجار	<i>majār</i> Hungarian	مجارستان	<i>majārestān</i> Hungary
بيمار	<i>bimār</i> sick	بيمارستان	bimārestān hospital

- گاه... -gấh indicates a place where an activity is pursued:

dāneš انشگاه الم المقاه ال

الله namāyeš الله namāyešgāh الله show exhibition

show exhibition

forudgāh down(wards) airport

down(wards) airport

forušgāh to sell stores

istādan ist- ايستگاه istādan ist- station, stop

ylلايشگاه إيالشگاه إيالشگاه إيالشگاه إيالشگاه إيالشگاه إيالشگاه إيالشگاه إيالشگاه إيالستادن ايستادن ايستادن

- Three suffixes indicating agents:
  - بان -bấn (stressed) and جي...-ci (unstressed). The latter is from Turkish '-çi', and is colloquial:

*bāqbān* gardener باغبان *bāq* garden باغ dar door در دربان darbān doorman pās watch ياسي pāsbān policeman *šahr* city شہر šahrbān police chief شهربان kašti ship کشتی kaštibān captain telefonci telephonist تلفن telefon telephone tofang rifle تفنگ tofangci rifleman تفنگیی post post, mail یست postci postman يستجي ... -gar and its variants گار...- $k\bar{a}r$ , گار...- $g\bar{a}r$ : *kārgar* workman کارگر *kār* work derougar harvester دروگر derou harvest درو āhangar blacksmith *āhan* iron زرگر zargar goldsmith zar gold زر xedmatkār servant خدمت خدمت āmuzgār آموزگار -āmuxtan āmuz آموذن.. to teach teacher

Diminutives are forms indicating smallness, or, by association, endearment or denigration. They are formed by suffixing .... -cé (with silent ) to nouns denoting things, or ناس. -ák to nouns in general. Both suffixes are stressed:

دریاچه د

• The stressed suffix •... -é often indicates a measure:

المنت dast hand المنت dasté handful, bunch المنت haft seven المنت haft week المنت nim half (adjective) المنت somare مناره šomare number

**Compounds.** Important forms of compound nouns are shown below.

 Many compounds denoting agents (persons or things) are made with the present stem of an appropriate verb:

poxtan paz- to cook پختن پز...

āšpaz cook آشيز

foruxtan foruš- to sell فروختن فروش...

ketābforuš bookseller کتابفروش miveforuš fruitseller میوه فروش qāli foruš carpet dealer عبزی فروش sabzi foruš greengrocer

... dāštan dār- to have

سردار sardār commander کتابدار ketābdār librarian مسابدار hesābdār accountant

bar xāstan xiz- to rise برخاستن خيز...

zudxiz early riser زودخيز

šostan šu- to wash شستن شو...

raxtšu launderer رختشو

bāxtan hāz- to forfeit باختن باز...

sarbāz soldier سرباز

kardan kon- to make کردن کند...

پاككن pāk kon eraser خشككن xošk kon blotter, drier

roftan rub- to sweep رفتن روب...

min ruh minesweeper

senāxtan šenās- to know شناختن شناسد..

zamin šenās geologist زمين شناس

neveštan nevis- to write نوشتن نویس...

tārix nevis historian تاريخ نويس

 Many nouns showing where an activity takes place are compounded with خانه xāne 'house':

āšpaz cook آشپزخانه āšpazxāne kitchen مهمان mehmān guest مهمانخانه mehmānxāne guesthouse

ketāb book كتابخانه ketābxāne library sarbāz soldier سربازخانه sarbāz xāne barracks سربازخانه cāi tea چاى cāixāne teashop قهوه خانه qahve coffee مريضخانه mariz sick مريضخانه marizxāne hospital دواخانه davāxāne هريض dāruxāne هريضانه dāruxāne هريضانه dāruxāne

\* (دوا(خانه) davā and davāxāne are the popular terms; دارو (خانه) dāru and dāruxāne are the official terms.

 Compounds exist formed from two nouns either juxtaposed, or connected with the ezāfe (see 3/5):

juxtaposed: صاحبخانه sāhebxāne landlord

پدرزن pedarzan (husband's) father-in-law روزنامه ruznāme newspaper

with ezāfe: ميز تحرير mize tahrir desk otāqe xāb bedroom اطاق خواب dasture zabān grammar دستور زبان dasture jalase agenda داه آهن rāhe āhan railway

 Some useful compounds denoting intense activity have been formed with redoubled verb stems (past or present, or mixed). Since these are 'petrified' formations, i.e. we do not make new ones, the words are most easily learned as items of vocabulary:

goftan gu- to say گفتن گو... goftan gu- to say گفتن گو...

jostoju search جستجو jostoju search جستن جو... شستشو šostan šu- to wash شستش شو... šostošu washing آمدوشد āmad came, آمد

Whether the compound is written as one word or more, each element retains its spelling, even if the rule given in 1/21 is apparently breached:

ياد yād memory, داشت dāšt to have پادداشت yāddāšt memorandum, note



kabābforuši Kebab stall

## 3. Derived and compound adjectives

The term *adjective* here includes participles (5/20) used as adjectives.

**Prefixes.** The most important adjectival prefix is the negative prefix ...  $\[ \mathbf{\hat{u}} \]$   $n\bar{a}$ -, added to an adjective, a noun, a phrase or verbal part:

nārāhat uncomfortable ناراحت nārāhat uncomfortable nādorost incorrect نادرست poxte mature نایخته nāpoxte immature xos well خوش nāxoš unwell ناخوش nājur inappropriate jur sort جوړ nāomid hopeless omid hope امید nāhaq unjust ناحق nāhaq unjust nāciz worthless ناچيز ciz thing چيز nāras unripe نارس rasidan ras- to arrive رسيدن رسد.. nābud nonexistent نابود budan bāš- to be نابود haq senās grateful حق ناشناس haq šenās ungrateful

Suffixes. Suffixes added to make adjectives include:

• i. This suffix, which always takes the stress of the word, makes adjectives from nouns. It is added in the same way as are the noun -i suffixes (11/2 above), except when added to a few base words ending in silent • (1/15); see \* at the end of this indent. This is the most productive adjectival suffix. Adjectives formed in this way are also used, where appropriate, as nouns with a meaning different from the base noun.

irān Iran ایران irān Iran ایران irāní Iranian ایران fārs Fars (province) فارسی fārsí Persian قارس ālmāni German

<sup>\*</sup> also commonly نومید numid

il tribe احل ili tribal ایلے farhang culture فرهنگ farhangi cultural فرهنگی adahi literary ادبي adab literature ادب extiār choice اختيار extiāri optional اختياري rougani oily روغني rougan oil روغن cubi wooden چوہی cub wood چوب يا  $p\bar{a}$  foot pāi foot-driven پایی hālāi upper بالایی الا bālā top, upper part haftegi weekly هفتگی hafte week هفته xānegi domestic خانگي xāne house خانه

With a base noun taken from Arabic and ending in -at or -e + silent b, that ending is usually dropped before the suffix is added:

mellat nation ملی melli national ملت neshat relation(ship) ملت neshi relative نسبی neshi relative اداری edāre administration اداری ezāfe additional but: مندلی راحتی rāhat راحت sandaliye rāhati comfort(able) ezsy chair

The suffix can be added to a long infinitive (5/2), giving it the meaning 'worthy of' or 'capable of':

cيدنى didani worth seeing ديدنى xordani edible dust dāštani likeable

\* The suffix c... -i is added as b... (not b... -egi) after a small number of nouns ending in -e + silent b:

lule tube لولداى luleí tubular لولد pambe cotton پنبدای pambei (made of) cotton

The uses of the suffix ... are summarised in Appendix III.

The stressed suffixes \_... -óm and \_... -omín make ordinal numbers. The stressed suffix \_... -é makes adjectives from some numerical expressions. These derivatives are explained

in 9/3, 6.

Other adjectival suffixes exist, all of them 'petrified', i.e. of limited application which we cannot extend. Two worth noting are l... -å added to the present stem of a few verbs (5/10), and .... -mánd added to nouns, showing a characteristic trait. Both suffixes are stressed:

tavānestan dān- to know دانا dānā wise دانستن داند... توانا tavānestan tavān- can توانا tavānā powerful وانستن تواند... dārā rich دارا\* dātā wealthy دولتمند doulat wealth

\* most commonly used in a possessive structure (3/5), to express 'possessing':

غمین دارای نفرذ زیاد šaxsi dārāye nofuze ziād a person of/having/possessing great influence Words with these and other petrified suffixes are usually most easily learnt as items of vocabulary.

**Compounds.** Two important forms of compound adjectives are shown below.

 Many adjectives are formed by combining nouns, simple adjectives, numbers or verbal parts:

جهاریا tizpā fleet-footed
تیزیا fārsi zabān Persian-speaking فارسی زبان golrang rose-coloured
علرنگ sangdel hard-hearted
شنگدل sangdel hard-hearted
منگدل deltang sad
مانتگ rāstgu truthful
مانتگو nešāt āvar pleasant
مانساس jahāndide experienced

Compounds can be made with a preposition and a noun;

the commonest prepositions used are  $b\bar{a}$  'with' and  $b\bar{a}$  'without'.  $b\bar{a}$  'without' in such compounds is often written joined to the base word:

Whether the compound is written as one word or more, each element retains its spelling, even if the rule given in 1/21 is apparently breached:

See 3/9, 10 for the comparative and superlative of derived and compound adjectives.

See 10/5 for the formation of compound adjectives using the Arabic words قابل *qābel* and غير *qeir*.

### 4. Derived verbs

**Verbs derived from nouns.** A few verbs are derived from simple nouns. The derived long infinitive (5/2) ends in بيدن... -idan, and the present stem (5/10) is regular:

**Causative verbs.** Examine the English sentences, arranged in pairs:

The tree is falling. The gardener is felling the tree.

The plot failed. The police foiled the plot.

In each pair, the second sentence contains a *causative* verb: 'to fell' is to cause something to fall; 'to foil' is to cause something to fail. The causative verb makes its direct object (see 5/6) perform the action indicated.

Persian has a few important causative verbs; their long infinitive is derived from the base verb on the formula

<u> -āndan/-ānidan</u> -<u>itti...</u>

The present stem of the causative is regular.

suxtan suz- to burn/be on fire

suzāndan suzān- to burn/set on fire

rasidan ras- to arrive

rasān(i)dan rasān- to deliver رسانیدن رسانید

tarsidan tars- az to fear ترسیدن ترسد.. از

tarsān(i)dan tarsān- to frighten ترساندن\ترسانيدن ترساند..

gaštan/gardidan gard- to turn گشتن\گردیدن گرد...

gardāndan gardān- to (make) turn

A few verbs have lost a syllable in the process:

*raftan rav-* to go

rāndan rān- to drive راندن ([ رواندن ] راند.

nešastan nešin- to sit

nešāndan nešān- to seat نشاندن ([نشیناندن ] mešāndan nešān-

The verb گذشتن گذر... از gozaštan gozar- az 'to pass' is a special case. It has the following derived forms:

one regular causative

gozarāndan gozarān- to pass (time etc.) گذراند..

• two irregular causatives

gozāštan gozār- گذار... عنداشتن گذار... و gozārdan gozār- گذاردن گذاردن

Compound verbs are studied in 5/29 and 30.

## 12. Polite Forms

### 1. General

Persian has certain language forms which are used by all speakers to show respect, or at least to avoid sounding too familiar. We can call these 'polite forms'. This does not mean that what is called 'everyday speech' in this book is impolite; it is only less deferential. This chapter shows the most frequent polite forms.

Colloquial pronunciation (see 2/6) can be used with polite forms.

### 2. Pronouns

The following polite pronoun variants are in common use:

'I'. Referring to oneself, بنده bande is used instead of orm:

hande nemi dānam ‹nemi dunam›. ا don't know.

• 'You'. See 4/2, second indent, explaining the widespread use of the plural شما šomā for 'you' in the singular. This is part of everyday speech. A deferential form for 'you' is بناب عالى janābe āli. Its verb stands in the شما

janābe āli vaqt dārid? جناب عالى وقت داريد؟ Have you got time?

Everyday: او کجاست؟ u kojāst? Where is he/she? قَمَا كَجَا هستند؟ قَمَا كَجَا هستند؟ Where are they?

Polite: ایشان کجا هستند؟ Where is he/she? فقم الاقتام الاقتام

## 3. Plural for singular

The second and third indents of 12/2 above examine the use of plural pronouns with plural verbs.

A verb with a singular noun as subject is also commonly made plural in polite language. The noun subject remains singular:

barādaretān hanuz nayāmade and. Your brother has not come yet.

? xānom hastand? Is madame (in)?

### 4. Verbs

There are in common use various polite alternatives for everyday verbs.

The following are used in the ایشان or ایشان persons, i.e. for the person(s) spoken to or the person(s) spoken about respectively:

for the everyday ... بودن باشد.. budan bāš- to be (in a place):
 tašrif dāštan dār-

('to have one's honour')

آیا جناب عالی دیروز تشریف داشتید؟ āyā janābe āli diruz tašrif dāštid? Were you (there) yesterday?

for ... آمدن آ āmadan ā- to come:

tašrif āvordan āvar-('to bring one's honour')

išān tašrif nayāvordand. He/She/They didn't come.

for ... رفتن رو... raftan rav- to go:

.... tašrif bordan bar-('to take one's honour')

است. مى بريد ؟ حيف است. hālā tašrif mi barid? heif ast. You're going now? That's a pity.

• for ... گفتن گو goftan gu- to say:

... فرمودن فرما... farmudan farmā- ('to command')

ce farmudid xānom?

What did you say, ma'am?

for ...خواسان خواهـ.. xāstan xāh- to want, to request:
میل داشان دار...

meil dāštan dār
meil farmudan farmā('to be inclined to')

برای شام چه میل دارید\می فرمایید؟ barāye šām ce meil dārid/mi farmāid? What would you like for dinner?

fahmidan fahm- to understand: فهمیدن فهم... moltafet šodan šav-('to be attentive')

ملتفت شدید چرا اینطورگفتند؟ moltafet šodid cerā intour goftand? Did you understand why they said that ('thus')?

In compound verbs (5/29) formed with ... کردن کند. kardan kon- and with certain other base verbs, the verbal part is replaced by ... فرمودن فرما farmudan farmā- 'to command' in polite speech:

modir diruz مدير ديروز تلفن فرمودند (= تلفن كرد). telefon farmudand (= telefon kard). The director telephoned yesterday.

kei harakat کی حرکت فرمودید (= حرکت کردید)؟

farmudid (= harakat kardid) When did you leave?

 $iš\bar{a}n$  ایشان اجازه نفرمودند (= او اجازه نداد) که  $iš\bar{a}n$   $ej\bar{a}ze\ nafarmudand\ (= u\ ej\bar{a}ze\ nad\bar{a}d)\ ke\ ...$  He/She did not permit...

Speaking for oneself or a group, we can replace ... گفتن گو goftan gu- 'to say' with the common polite form عرض کردن کند.. arz kardan kon- ('to petition'):

... be išān arz kardam ke ... I told him/her that ...

The present-tense form ... عرض می کنم که arz mi konam ke ... is also used to mean 'If I may say so, ...', 'With respect, ...':

arz mi konam ke intour nist. عرض مى كنم كه اينطور نيست. With respect, it isn't like that.

See 5/29. For all the compound verbs shown above, the subjunctive (5/16) and imperative (5/18) usually have the

الطفًا ساعت دو تشريف بياوريد. lotfan sā'ate do tašrif biāvarid.
Please come at two o'clock.

arz mi konam ke fardā telefon befarmāid.

Perhaps you could/May I suggest that you telephone tomorrow. But rhetorical questions constructed with the subjunctive of these verbs usually have no subjunctive prefix:

? ce arz konam? What can I say چه عرض کنم

## 5. Prepositions

In polite speech we often replace the prepositions براى be 'to' or براى barāye 'for' with the noun خدمت xedmat 'service' with reference to the person(s) spoken to or the person(s) spoken about. This noun takes either the possessive ezāfe (3/5) or a possessive-adjective suffix (3/11):

... xedmate vazir arz kardam ke ... ا mentioned to the minister that ...

nāmei ke xedmate šomā/xedmatetān neveštam ...

The letter which I wrote to/for you ...

can also replace the preposition پیش piše 'to(wards)', in which case 'seeing' or 'visiting' is implied:

ديروز خدمتتان امدند. diruz xedmatetān āmadand.
He/She/They came to see you yesterday.

## 6. Requesting and thanking

In polite speech as in everyday speech, we distinguish between the two expressions translated into English as 'please':

#### 12 - Polite Forms

do kilo, xāheš mi konam. Two kilos, please.
عدر ميكنم. az injā befarmāid.

Please (come) this way.

xāheš mi konam is also 'Don't mention it' or 'You're خواهش مي كنم welcome', in response to an expression of thanks.

motašakkeram 'Thank متشكرم mersi and مرسى you', used in everyday speech, can become in polite speech منونم mamnunam 'I am grateful':

az eltefāte šomā xeili mamnunam. I am very grateful for your kindness.

A still more polite formula of thanks is

. (است) مرحمتتان زیاد (است). marhamatetān ziād (ast). 'Your kindness (is) great'.

# Appendix I Irregular present stems of verbs

See 5/10. Only commonly used verbs are listed below. Colloquial pronunciation (2/6) of present stems (and of three past stems) is shown in angular quotation marks  $\langle \cdot \rangle$ . For brevity, the particle 'to' is omitted from the English infinitive.

_		_		
آزمودن	āzmudan	آزما	āzmā-	experiment
أفريدن	āfaridan	آفرينـ	āfarin-	create
أفزودن	afzudan	إفزا	afzā-	increase
آمدن	āmadan <umad-></umad->		**	come
آموخت <i>ن</i>	āmuxtan	آموز	āmuz-	teach
أميختن	āmixtan	آميز	āmiz-	mix
	andāxtan			throw
آوردن <u>ā</u>	vordan/āvardan	آوٍر∖آر	āvar-/ār-	bring
أويختن				hang
باخت <i>ن</i>	bāxtan	باز	bāz-	lose, forfeit
بايست <i>ن</i>	bāyestan (defectiv	e) باید	bāyad**	must
بردن	bordan	بر	bar-	carry, take away
بسة <i>ن</i>	bastan	بند	band-	tie, close
بودن	budan	باش	bāš-	be
پالودن	pāludan	يالا	pālā-	refine, distil
پختن	poxtan	پز	paz-	cook
پذیرفت <i>ن</i>	paziroftan	پذیر	pazir-	receive
پرداختن	pardāxtan	پرداز	pardāz-	pay
پيمودن	peimudan	پيما	peimā-	measure
پيوسا <i>ن</i>	peivastan	پيوند	peivand-	join
تافت <i>ن</i>	tāftan	تابـ	tāb-	shine, twist
توانستن	tavānestan <tunest< th=""><th>توانه٠</th><th>tavān- <tun-></tun-></th><th>can</th></tunest<>	توانه٠	tavān- <tun-></tun->	can
جستن	jostan	جو	ju-	look for

## Appendix I

cidan	چين	cin-	collect, lay (table)
xāstan	خيز	xiz-	rise
xāstan	خواهـ	xāh-*	want
dādan	دهـ	deh- <d-></d->	give
dāštan	دار	dār-	have
dānestan «dunest-»	دانـــ	dān- <dun-></dun->	know
duxtan	دوز	duz-	sew
didan	بين	bin-	see
raftan	رو	rav- < r->	go
roftan	روب	rub-	sweep
zadan	ز <b>نـ</b>	zan-	beat
sāxtan	ساز	sāz-	make
sepordan	سپار	sepār-	entrust
šāyestan (defectiv	شاید (e	šāyad**	may
šodan	شو	šav- <š->	become
šekastan	شكن	šekan-	break
<i>§omordan</i>	شمار	šomār-	count
šenāxtan	شناس	šenās-	know
šenidan	شنو	šenav-	hear
farmudan	فرما	farmā-	command
	_		
	_		
	گذار	gozār- «zār-	-> put
gereftan			
gaštan	گرد	gard-	become, turn
goftan	گو	gu- <g-></g->	say
	dādan dāštan dānestan ‹dunest-› duxtan didan raftan roftan zadan sāxtan sepordan šāyestan (defective šodan šostan šekastan šemāxtan šenāxtan śenidan farmudan foruxtan fariftan	xāstan xāstan dādan dāstan dānestan ‹dunest-› duxtan didan raftan roftan sēpordan sēpordan sostan sostan sostan sostan somordan senāxtan	xāstan       خواهـ       xāh-*         dādan       dār-       dār-         dāstan       dār-       dān- ‹dun-›         dānestan ‹dunest-›       dān- ‹dun-›         duxtan       jo duz-         didan       jo duz-         rav- ⟨>       rav- ⟨>         sāz-       sepār-         sāyestan (defective)       šāyad**         šodan       šāyad**         šodan       šāyad**         šostan       šāyad**         šostan       šāyad**         šostan       šāyad**         šomār-       šan-         šekastan       šan-         šenāx-       šekan-         šenāx-       šenāx-         šenāx-       jo farmā-         fexār-       jo farib-         fexār-       jo farib-         jarib-       jo farib-

### Appendix I

mordan مردن	مير	mir-	die
nešastan نشساتن	نشين	nešin-	sit
namudan غودن	غا	namā-	show
neveštan نوشتن	نويسه	nevis-	write
yāftan يافت <i>ن</i>	يابد	yāb-	find

<sup>\*</sup> See 5/10 under 'Colloquial pronunciation'. In the colloquial present stem of آمدن  $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$  becomes  $-\bar{a}$ . In the colloquial present stem of خواستن  $\bar{a}$   $x\bar{a}$  stan,  $-\bar{a}$  becomes  $-\bar{a}$ -; see 5/19 under خواستن  $x\bar{a}$  stan.

<sup>\*\*</sup> باید اشاید hāyad/šāyad: Not the present stems, but the present 3rd person singular forms used for all persons. See 5/19.

# Appendix II اضافه ezāfe

#### 1. General

The word <code>lost ezāfe</code> means 'addition' or 'supplement'. It is an important grammatical device, which takes the form of a suffix added to a word to show its relationship to the following word or words.

For clarity, the pronunciation of the *ezāfe* is printed bold in the transcription of the examples given below.

## 2. Writing and pronunciation

The *ezāfe* is never stressed, and never affects the stress of the word to which it is attached. It is written and pronounced as follows:

when added after a consonant, it may be marked with the short vowel ... (kasre or zir, see 1/23); but as short vowels are very rarely marked, it is usually left unwritten in this position. It is pronounced -e:

ketābe man my book
راه كاشان
rāhe kāšān the Kashan road
داه كاشان
xanome abbāsi Mrs Abbasi
شهر قشنگ
šahre qašang a/the beautiful city
dāxele postxāne inside the post office
xāndane in nāme
(the) reading (of) this letter

when added to silent \$\(\omega\$ (1/15), or after \$\omega\$ -i, it is usually left unwritten; after silent \$\(\omega\$\$ it may be marked with hamze over the \$\(\omega\$\$. It is pronounced -ye:

خانه او خانهٔ او مقدو u his house خانه او خانهٔ او miveye širin sweet fruit In this book the hamze is shown.

#### Appendix II

Formerly the spelling ... was also used optionally to show the *ezāfe* of *-iye*. We now leave the final ... unmarked:

kaštiye bādi sailing ('wind') boat

• when added after  $1 - \bar{a}$  or 0 - u/ou, it is written 0 and pronounced -ye:

### 3. Use

The *ezāfe* is used as follows. Full explanation is given in the paragraphs indicated:

• between nouns in the so-called possessive structure, and between certain nouns in apposition (3/5):

میز تحریر mize tahrir writing table
ماشین سفیر māšine safīr the ambassador's car
ماشین سفیر قرمین سفیری āqāye moširi Mr Moshiri

- between a noun and a following attributive adjective (3/8):
   niruye havāi air force
- between noun and pronoun in possessive structure (3/11):
   pišnehāde šomā your proposal
- between a long infinitive and its direct object (5/2):
   neveštane tārix history-writing
- between certain prepositions and the noun or pronoun which they govern (6/3):

زير زمين zire zamin below the earth براى آنها barāye ānhā for them

 between the elements of certain compound adjectives of Arabic origin (10/5):

qeire qābele qabul unacceptable غير قابل قبول

# Appendix III Suffix .... -i

#### 1. General

The suffix *i...* -*i* is the most versatile of the suffixes. It is examined in detail in the paragraphs referred to below. This Appendix summarises its various forms and uses. These split into two distinct groups.

## 2. Group 1

This group consists of two types, the *indefinite -i* and the *relative -i*. In both types the suffix has the following characteristics:

- It is unstressed, and does not affect the stress of the word.
- It is pronounced i.
- It is written:

  - after l, or و pronounced u: يى .
  - after silent ه (1/15): ای
- It is added to the end of a noun or a noun-and-adjective expression.
- It is not added to a word already ending in  $\omega$ ....
- When appropriate, it is added after a plural suffix, but before a definite direct-object suffix  $\int_{\gamma} r\bar{a}$ .
- It is not found in combination with a possessive-adjective suffix (3/11).

The two types in the group are described respectively in paragraphs 3 and 4 below, with references for each example.

## 3. Indefinite 6...-i

See paragraph 2 above. The indefinite -i is added, in the manner described there:

### Appendix III

- to a countable noun or noun-and-adjective expression:
  - to make it indefinite (i.e. to show that it is unidentified to at least one party of the dialogue):

ketābi (a/any/some) book کتابی	1
sedāi (a/any/some) sound صدایی	3/2
پارویی pārui (a/any/some) spade	(3/2
kuzei (a/any/some) jug	,
a/any/some کتاب کوچکی ketābe kuceki عتابی کوچکی ketābi kucek	3/8
ketābi kucek } (small book	3/0
cizhāi (any/some) things چيزهايي	3/4
ketābi rā xarid.	3/3
He/She bought a (certain) book	

after certain interrogative adjectives (3/13):

ce mardi? what man? چه مردی؟ دونور مردی؟ cetour mardi? what kind of man?

- with a negative verb, to express 'no', 'none', 'not any':
  - eškāli nist. There is no difficulty. 3/14 اشكالى نيست. kasi nayāmad. Nobody came. 4/10
- to any noun or noun-and adjective expression, in exclamations (8/16):

ce takabbori! What arrogance! چه تکبری! ce asbhāye qašangi!
What beautiful horses!

• to يك yek 'one' and to كم yek 'one' and to كله yek 'also to make an adverb:

یکی از آنها	yeki az ānhā one of them	9/2
كدام يكي؟	kodām yeki? which one?	3/13
	kami mi xorad. He eats (a) little	4/10
کمی بہتر	kami behtar a little better	7/2

## 4. Relative ن...-i

See paragraph 2 above. The relative -*i* is added, in the manner described there, to a noun or noun-and-adjective expression, or to

### Appendix III

the pronoun  $in anh \bar{a}$  'they/those', when one of these is the antecedent of an identifying relative (8/6):

قضى كه شخصى كه معدن المداى (را) كه نوشتم معدن المداى (را) كه نوشتم المداى (را) كه نوشتم المداى (را) كه نوشتم the letter which I wrote المداى المداى المداى المداى المداى المداى كه المداى

## 5. Group 2

This group consists of two types, the *noun -i* and the *adjectival -i*. In both types the suffix changes the meaning and grammatical type of the word to which it is added. In both types the suffix has the following characteristics:

- It takes the stress of the word.
- It is written and pronounced:
  - after a consonant: \_\_\_\_ pronounced -i.
  - after l, or pronounced u: یعی pronounced -i.
  - after silent (1/15) in Persian words: in almost all cases (and in all participles) the is dropped and the suffix takes the form گی... pronounced -egi. But see paragraph 7 below.
  - after words taken from Arabic and ending in silent **a**, or in .... -at: the last vowel and consonant are dropped and .... pronounced -i is added to the preceding consonant.
- It is not added to a word already ending in .......

The two types in the group are described respectively in paragraphs 6 and 7 below, with references for each example.

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## 6. Noun ....-i

See 11/2. Noun -*i* is added, in the manner described in paragraph 5 above, to an adjective or to a noun denoting a person, to make an abstract noun or a noun denoting an activity or the place where an activity is pursued. The base adjective or noun may be a participle (5/20):

نهایی bozorgi greatness, size بزرگی نرگی rāstgui truthfulness خستگی rāstgui truthfulness راستگویی vāstegi fatigue رانندگی rānandegi driving دوستی āšpazi cookery کتابفروشی ketābforuši bookshop

## 7. Adjectival ي...-i

See 11/3. Adjectival -i is added, in the manner described in paragraph 5 above, to a noun to make the corresponding adjective. The noun may be a long infinitive (5/2):

ایرانی irāni Iranian نسبی irāni Iranian ایرانی jāi pedal-, foot-پایی pāi pedal-, foot-اداری edāri administrative خوردنی sordani edible

In the case of a few adjectives made from native Persian nouns ending in silent  $\bullet$  (1/15), the  $\bullet$ ... is retained and we add  $\cdot$ i:

kerāyei rented, for rent کرایه ای

# Appendix IV Definite direct-object suffix $\sqrt{ra}$

#### 1. General

The use of the definite direct-object suffix  $\int_{0}^{\infty} r\bar{a}$  is explained in the text where it arises. It is summarised here, with references, for convenience. For the term *definite* see 3/2; for the term *direct object* see 5/6.

# 2. Writing and pronunciation

The suffix  $\int r\bar{a}$  is almost always written detached from its base word, even when that word ends in a joined letter (1/2):

شخص را مخص قمین قمید آل شخص را فراش را farrāš rā the office boy مرد را mard rā the man بچه را bacce rā the child

In older Persian we can find the suffix attached to its word when the spelling permits it, especially after the pronouns آن in 'this', آن  $i\delta an$  'it/that', and ایشان  $i\delta an$  'he/she/they' (4/3):

With the pronoun مرا marā 'me' the suffix is always joined; with the pronoun تورا torā 'you' it is also joined, though تورا (same pronounciation) is also found. See paragraph 3, last indent, below.

The suffix  $\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{j}}$  is never stressed, and never affects the stress of its base word. It is pronounced colloquially  $\langle ro \rangle$  or  $\langle o \rangle$  after a consonant, and  $\langle ro \rangle$  after a vowel:

in šaxs ro/in šaxs o> this person این شخص را «un baccehā ro> those children

marā 'me' is sometimes replaced colloquially by the form «máno».

#### 3. Use

The suffix marks the definite direct object (5/6) of a verb. It is added for this purpose, after any other suffixes which there may be:

• to a noun (3/3, 4) or a noun expression, i.e. an expression consisting of noun + noun (3/5), noun + adjective (3/8, 9), noun + possessive (3/11) or adjective + noun (3/8, 10, 12, 13, 14):

? معلم را ندیده اید mo'allem rā nadide id? Have you not seen the teacher?

أند. farhange fārsi rā borde and.

They have taken the Persian dictionary.

دم. مرا در بازار گم کردم. docarxeam rā dar bāzār gom kardam. I lost my bicycle in the market.

دوچرخهٔ شما را نگرفته ام. docarxeye šomā rā
nagerefte am. I have not taken your bicycle.

in sanadhā rā kojā peidā این سندها را کجا پیدا کردید؟ kardid? Where did you find these documents?

har nāme rā bā deqqat هر نامه را با دقت نگاه می کنند.
negāh mi konand. They look at every letter carefully.

kodām naqš rā bištar كدام نقش را بيشتر دوست داريد؟ dust dārid? Which design do you like more?

to a noun or noun expression carrying the indefinite suffix
 ... -i (see 3/2, 3), when the identity of the noun is known to one party:

بالأخره چه فيلمى را ديدند؟ What film did they finally see?

برای بچه ها دبیرستانی را انتخاب کرده اند. barāye baccehā dabirestāni rā entexāb karde and.

They have chosen a secondary school for the children.

Often this suggests the meaning of the English expression 'a certain ...':

### Appendix IV

farši rā xaride and. فرشى را خريده اند.

They have bought a (certain) carpet.

(one known to them but not necessarily to me)

to a noun element of some compound verbs (5/29):

درس را نخوانده اند. dars rā naxānde and.
They have not studied the lesson.

- to a noun or noun expression which is the antecedent of an identifying relative clause (see 8/6), when either that noun or noun expression, or the relative pronoun & ke (or each one in turn) is the direct object of the verb in its own clause. In this use of , the suffix is not obligatory; if it is used, it stands between the relative suffix .... -i and the relative pronoun & ke. Examine three examples:
  - شخصی (را) که زنگ می زد غی شناسم. šaxsi (rā) ke zang mi zad nemi šenāsam.
    I don't know the person who was ringing.

(The antecedent شخص is the direct object of its own verb عني شناسم in the main clause.)

مسجدی (را) که دیدیم قشنگ است.

masjedi (rā) ke didim qašang ast.

The mosque which we saw is beautiful.

(The relative pronoun که ke is the direct object of its own verb دیدیم in the relative clause.)

کتابی (را) که خریدم گم کرده ام.

ketābi (rā) ke xaridam gom karde am. I have lost the book that I bought.

(The antecedent کتاب, and the relative pronoun کد, are each in turn the direct object of their own verb.)

When **J** is added to a noun-and-adjective expression, it follows the whole expression: see examples under the first indent above.

- to the pronouns
  - ما مرا $\rightarrow$  man ا مرائل mā we ما to you ( $\rightarrow$  ترا $\rightarrow$  torā you) تو šomā you و u he/she انها ānhā they أنها išān they for which see 4/3; also 12/2 for أيشان .
  - مال من māle man mine (etc.), see 4/5.
  - این in this, آنها inhā these, اینها inhā these آنها ānhā those, اینها hamin the same/this very one, see 4/6.
  - په ki who/whose, چه ce what, see 4/7.
  - مودم xod oneself, خودم xodam myself (etc.), see 4/8.
  - مدیگر\یکدیگر hamdigar/yekdigar each other, see
  - هر چيز\همه چيز\همه اش har kas everyone, هر چيز\همه چيز\همه اش har ciz/hame ciz/hamaš everything, همه hame all (plural), see 4/10.
  - مناب عالى , janābe āli you, see 12/2.

When there are several direct objects of the same verb and the objects are connected with va/o 'and', the suffix va/o is put once, after the last object:

pedar va pesar rā didim. We saw father and son.

من و ترا غی شناسند. They don't know you and me.

References are to **chapter**/paragraph number or **appendix**/ paragraph number. The sign  $\rightarrow$  refers you to another entry in the index.

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This is a book for reference and revision, aimed at those in the early stages of studying the Persian language. It uses the official reformed spelling, and covers handwriting, educated standard and educated colloquial pronunciation, as well as the important polite forms. The grammar is explained with numerous examples that are given in both Persian script and Roman transcription. Grammatical themes are grouped logically, and there are cross-references, appendices and a subject index to facilitate the search for the right form.

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